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THE
CRITICAL REVIEW;
OR,
ANNALS OF LITERATURE.

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Annals of Literature;

EXTENDED AND IMPROVED.

BY

A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

A NEW ARRANGEMENT.

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VOLUME the EIGHTEENTH.

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PRINTED FOR A. HAMILTON, FALCON-COURT, FLEET-STREET.

1796.

CRITICAL REVIEW

OF

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PRINTED FOR A. HARRISON, FALCON COURT, WEST STREET.

T H E

CRITICAL REVIEW.

For SEPTEMBER, 1796.

The New Annual Register, or general Repository of History, Politics, and Literature, for the Year 1795. To which is prefixed, the History of Knowledge, Learning, and Taste, in Great Britain, during the Reign of King Charles the First. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Robinsons. 1796.

THE volume before us is introduced by the following apology—

‘ The present volume makes its appearance at least a month later than was intended. But as our readers must perceive that our information is derived from no common sources, it may naturally be conceived that some delay may occur in the collecting of that information, and that, whatever may be our assiduity in endeavouring to gratify the anxious curiosity of the public at this momentous period, some disappointment (for every delay is a disappointment) may ensue from circumstances which we cannot command.’
P. iii.

The editors must excuse us, if we observe that such an apology was neither necessary, nor expected by the public. To collect from authentic documents the transactions of the year,—to arrange them with accuracy, and express them in animated and correct language,—is a task which must necessarily occupy several months; and when we reflect that their rival editors have not yet brought forward their history of 1792, and have even left the whole of French affairs of 1791 in arrears, we must add that it favours of affectation or bravado, to offer an excuse for having delayed their history of the year 1795; to the beginning of August 1796.

The volume is introduced (as usual) by a kind of critical history of science and literature, during the reign of Charles the First, which is written in the same candid and moderate style as the preceding parts, as will be seen in the following short but correct character of the philosopher of Malmesbury—

‘ Few of the political writers of this period have attracted more of the notice of succeeding times, than Hobbes. In 1647, this philosopher published “*De Cive*,” a work which he had long had in contemplation, and which was intended to check the rising spirit of democracy, by establishing the claims of monarchy, on new principles of philosophy. In 1650, he wrote “*De Corpore Politico*,” and the year following his “*Leviathan*,” in which, in establishing a system of civil policy, he represents man as an untameable beast of prey, and government as the strong chain by which he is to be restrained from mischief. This work, though learned and ingenious, adduced such bold and paradoxical opinions, both in philosophy and policy, that the clergy took the alarm, and the author was represented to be, in religion, inimical to revelation, and in policy, an advocate for the cause of tyranny. That his temper was soured by beholding the excesses into which the enthusiasm of liberty had betrayed the popular party, and his understanding shocked by the fanatical cant of the puritanical clergy, is, we think, evident from his writings. In religion, however, he appears rather to have been a sceptic than an absolute unbeliever; and his politics contain many sound observations on the principles of government. In comparison with such men as Hobbes, the pretended philosophers of France are puny sciolists, and their English imitators below contempt.’ p. xxviii.

The most important department, however, of this publication is the historical, which consists of ten chapters; the first five of which are occupied with our domestic affairs, and exhibit an apparently faithful sketch of the parliamentary proceedings in the session of 1795. This part, however, we observe, is less extended than in the preceding volume,—probably because the arguments on the war, which is the most prominent topic, were in general anticipated in 1794. The sixth chapter relates to the affairs of Ireland; and we find in it the most accurate and impartial account we have any where seen of the dismissal of earl Fitzwilliam, &c. The following observation appears new to us; and yet it carries with it a strong internal conviction that it is founded in truth—

‘ There is, however, another cause to which, upon the best authority, we are led to impute the dismissal of earl Fitzwilliam; and that is a well-grounded dread in the minister, of the rising influence of Mr. Grattan, the Ponsonby family, and others of the Irish patriots. These men, though they have not, we confess, acted in all respects consistently with the character, have always been attached to Whig principles: and principles cannot in all instances undergo an immediate change, and be made in every respect subservient to the dictates of self-interest. They are men too of rank, of considerable local influence, and of transcendent talents. If therefore
the

the influence which is now vested in a family of new men, who are necessarily more dependent on the British cabinet, could have been transferred at once to the Whig party of Ireland, while the Portland party here remained connected with them, the whole power and influence of that kingdom must have vested in the duke of Portland and his friends; and it must in some measure have counteracted that immense influence which Mr. Pitt has acquired with the monied interest of England. This is therefore the only clue which will lead to the developement of the conduct of the British cabinet. We state it not as a matter of censure (for jealousies and intrigues will take place in all cabinets), but as a matter of historical remark. The narrative which gives only a dull record of events to be found in every newspaper, is not a history but a chronicle.

‘ We shall not enter into any discussion concerning the probable consequences of the catholic bill, as it is a measure which does not appear likely to be soon carried into effect; and the merits and demerits of lord Fitzwilliam’s administration are amply canvassed in the succeeding debates. We confess ourselves not among the unqualified admirers of that administration; yet, whatever may be the feelings of those who reprobate the present war,—those assuredly, who are disposed to approve it, ought not to withhold commendation from earl Fitzwilliam. The union of parties which he effected, the cheerfulness with which an impoverished nation submitted to immense burdens, were certainly favourable to the present objects of ministry. In the words of a writer who is supposed to occupy a high station in the church, and to be intimately connected with earl Fitzwilliam, “ he made a war in which Ireland had no concern, save as she was implicated with Great Britain—a war, doubtful in its cause, disgraceful in its consequences, and indefensible in its management—palatable, or at least not unpopular to the people of Ireland. His arrangements in correcting the lavish expenditure of the public money were certainly for the benefit of the nation, and his attention to the distressed peasantry highly commendable.” P. 152.

The remaining four chapters are chiefly devoted to the events of the war, and the state of the interior of France, in which we can easily discover that the assertion of the editors is not over-charged, ‘ that their information is derived from *no common sources* ;’ but, on the contrary, that much of it must have been collected on the spot. It cannot fail to be acceptable to our readers, to be made better acquainted than most of them probably are, with the characters of the men who at present exercise the executive authority in France—

‘ The suspicion and alarm which were awakened by the fatal experience of the past, joined to the honourable resistance of Thibaudeau, baffled the designs of those who had sought to bow the

people beneath the yoke of a second revolutionary government; and they no longer attempted to withhold the constitution. The present temper of the convention, however, entirely excluded from the highest offices of the state the men whom probably the voice of the people would have raised to those dignities. At the same time the prevailing party in the convention felt that to compose the whole executive directory of avowed terrorists, would excite such general indignation as it were well to avoid. A middle path was therefore chosen. A list was formed of men who were not indeed distinguished as favourites of the people, but most of whom bore characters free from reproach. The party of what was called *les hors la loi* (the outlawed deputies in the time of Robespierre), who, a few weeks before, would have had the absolute choice of the executive power, could now only raise, by a sort of compromise with the convention, one of their own party to that station. This person was Reveillere-Lepaux; he was formerly a lawyer; when called to the legislature, he attached himself to the party of the Gironde, had the honour of sharing their proscription during the tyranny of Robespierre, and was obliged to conceal himself in order to preserve his life. Reveillere-Lepaux is a man of strict integrity, and also a man of letters; he has applied himself particularly to the study of botany, of which he possesses considerable knowledge. He was with difficulty prevailed upon by his friends to accept the office of director, which a weak state of health, as well as a taste for study and retirement, led him to decline. At length, however, he yielded to the solicitations of those who felt that it was important to place at the head of affairs a person of his integrity; but it is said that, already wearied of his employment, and suffering in his health, he intends shortly to resign. Rewbell was born in the province of Alsace; and his profession was also that of a lawyer; he was one of the village attorneys of whom Mr. Burke makes mention, who composed the constituent assembly, where he performed his part with honour, and proved himself a friend to the liberties of his country. After the conquest of Holland by the French, Rewbell was sent with Sieyes, to conclude a treaty with that country. Rewbell has always belonged to what is called the middle party, and contributed with great ardor to the fall of the Jacobins, after the 27th of July. He is a man of plain good sense, and is said to know well how to take advantage even of difficult circumstances.

Letourneur de la Manche was, before the revolution, an officer of engineers; he is not distinguished for talents, and was rather more attached to the mountain than the plain; but his conduct has been unsullied by any of the excesses of the Jacobin party. The Abbé Sieyes is well known as a man of letters, a philosopher, and the author of the *Table of the Rights of Man*, drawn up by the constituent assembly. How a man so celebrated, and so intimately connected

connected with the *côté droit*, escaped persecution during the reign of Robespierre, was a matter of surprize to many; and he has been suspected of having purchased his peace with the tyrant by some unworthy compliances. By others Sieyes has been accused, on the contrary, of attachment to royalism; he had once a literary contest on that subject with Thomas Paine, and long since, in his *Disquisitions on Government*, declared that the edifice of the French constitution ought to terminate in a pyramid, or point; by which he meant regal power; an opinion that is now frequently cited by his adversaries. Sieyes is gloomy and unsocial in his disposition, and is said to have that circumspection which results not from timidity but from hypocrisy. Proud and imperious with the vanquished, he knows how to observe that sort of cautious conduct with the victorious party, which enables him to abandon them when another party arises. This forbearance costs him much, because he is naturally arrogant, and impatient of contradiction. He loves to involve his conduct in mystery. He has the art of ruling weaker minds, and of making them act as he thinks proper. While he remains hid behind the storm which he himself has raised. Above all other things he values his safety and his life; and this was perhaps his motive for rejecting his nomination to the executive directory; but Sieyes, though he "does not play," it is well known, "o'erlooks the cards," and has the direction of what is called the middle party of the legislative body; but as he rather leans towards the mountain than the plain, he proposes, by means of those whom he directs, since he scarcely ever appears himself at the tribune, measures of severity rather than of clemency, and schemes of ambition rather than of moderation. Barras, formerly the viscount Barras, and in the military service, a person of a very ordinary capacity, and better fitted for a man of pleasure than a statesman, would certainly not have obtained the station he now enjoys, but for the peculiar circumstances of the moment. He had indeed distinguished himself, by leading on the forces of the convention against the municipality of Paris on the 27th of July, although, in the time of Robespierre, he was sufficiently renowned as a terrorist; he had also contributed to suppress the insurrection of the Fauxbourg St. Antoine on the 20th of May, and had been appointed by the convention commander in chief on the 13th of Vendemiaire, and subdued the sections of Paris.

Such were the men who were selected by the governing party at that period in the convention, to fill the office of the executive directory. To the names abovementioned there was indeed added that of Cambaceres, a man of some talents, but of more duplicity, and one of the chiefs of the middle party. The mode of election established by the constitution for the office of the directory was, that each member of the council of five hundred should write the names of fifty persons, and after a scrutiny, a list of those fifty,

who had obtained the majority of votes, should be proclaimed by the president, and sent to the council of ancients, who, from that list, were to chuse five persons for the office of the executive directory. The prevailing party in the council of five hundred, having agreed upon six persons whom they chose to appoint to the directory, had sufficient address to prevail with the great majority to inscribe on their respective lists, together with those six well-known names, forty-four others which had never till then been mentioned. Accordingly, the names of the most obscure persons, village-justices, farmers, and even simple peasants, being placed with those of the six legislators, nothing was left to the council of ancients but an insulting mockery of choice, of which they felt the ignominy, but to which, in the present circumstances, they were compelled to submit; and Rewbell, La Reveillere Lepaux, Sieyes, Barras, and Letourneur de la Manche, were elected members of the directory; Sieyes having resigned, the same farce was again acted, and the names of Carnot and Cambaceres were sent with a fresh list of persons unknown to the council of ancients. Carnot was chosen by a majority of a few votes; he was an officer of engineers before the revolution; he is a man of distinguished abilities, and, possessing great military knowledge, is peculiarly well qualified to direct the plans of the campaign. The name of Carnot is indeed sullied with the stain of having been placed with that of Robespierre, and the other sanguinary names of the ancient committee of public safety, of which he was a member. But candour obliges us to remark that Carnot and Robert Lindet, who were both members of that execrable committee, were not considered as men of blood. It is well known that they took no part in the councils of Robespierre, but were constantly and uniformly employed in their respective departments,—Lindet in regulating the affairs of subsistence, and Carnot in arranging the plans of those memorable campaigns, by which, to use the language of Barrere, he organized victory.' P. 229.

The cause of the failure of the French in the last campaign is not, we believe, very generally known in this country—

‘ The army commanded by Jourdan, after forcing the posts occupied by the Austrians on the Lahn, crossed the Mein, and the convention were informed that Mentz was completely invested. The Austrian army, though recovered from the fatigue and defeats of the last campaign, had yet so much the impression of terror on their minds, that the French had hitherto found no great obstacles to the achievement of the chief object of their wishes,—the investment of the fortress of Mentz. The Austrians were retiring spiritless and dejected, when an accident decided the fate of this campaign in their favour. A division of the army under Pichegru had orders to take possession of a post in order to prevent the junction of

of Clairfait's army with Wurmsfer, who had been marching with a considerable force to the relief of Mannheim, supposing that he should arrive in sufficient time to prevent the surrender of that place to the French. The post was taken without much difficulty, for the Austrians retired on the approach of the assailants; but a part of the French cavalry having proceeded to pillage, the Austrians, who had hitherto acted on the defensive, advised by the peasantry of this disorder, returned to the charge, and surprized them. The infantry for some time stood the shock, but were at length obliged to give way; and the Austrians pursuing their first success, forced the whole of the division to fall back to Mannheim, and all the advantages of this expedition were totally lost.

Previous to this reverse, the French generals had discovered that the forces which they had under their command were not sufficient for all the great purposes they were to accomplish; since it was not only necessary to hold the Austrians in check, or continue to pursue them, but it required a very considerable force to carry on the siege of Mentz. The check given by the Austrians near Mannheim decided the French generals to abandon their pursuit. Jourdan also found his position no longer tenable. A division of the Austrian army, having violated the neutral territory between the Lahn and the Mein, had fallen on his rear, and taken a considerable part of his artillery. This violation of the neutral territory was made not only in open defiance of existing treaties, but (it is said) with the knowledge and even by the advice of officers in the Prussian service. Prince Hohenloe had, at the commencement of the Prussian negotiation with France, endeavoured to prevent its further progress, by the surprize of Kaiserslautern, where the French lost three thousand men. But the Prussians making immediate reparation, the negotiations were renewed. This prince was at Frankfort when the French passed the Rhine; and it is asserted that he encouraged the attack of Clairfait by the information he gave of the weakness and position of the French, who, not suspecting an attack from that quarter, had taken no care to guard against surprize. Jourdan raised the blockade of Mentz, and began his retreat. Clairfait having assembled the various detachments on the Neckar, pursued the army of the Sambre and Meuse, which had repassed the Mein, while Pichegru again crossed the Rhine at Mannheim to reinforce the army on the left, leaving a strong garrison in this place. The army under Jourdan, pursued by Clairfait, after various skirmishes, made good its retreat back to Dusseldorf, from whence it had first passed the Rhine; but the garrison of Mentz having been strongly reinforced, two divisions of the Austrian army crossed the river at different points, and attacked the remains of the French, who had been intrenched before that place, and who had, during so many months, wasted their strength in vain. The Austrians, after an obstinate resistance,

drove them from all their posts, destroyed their works, and took possession of all the artillery.' r. 248.

The selection of miscellaneous matter, and the reviews of foreign and domestic literature in this volume, are executed with the same ability which the editors have hitherto displayed in those departments. The public are informed in the Preface, that the volume for 1796 is already in some forwardness.

Poems : by G. D. Harley, of the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden.
8vo. 6s. Boards. Martin and Bain. 1796.

WE have read this volume of poems with much pleasure. The descriptive parts are very excellent; the compositions in general possess originality, and frequently charm by tenderness and simplicity. Mr. Harley's chief error seems to be prolixity, and the pursuing of a thought too far; besides which, he is often incorrect in his grammatical construction, as—

'He leaves to those *whom* gilded baubles prize, &c.'

It is true, we are told in the title-page, that the author 'does not yet know adjective, conjunction, or *ablative*;' but we think a writer should inform himself a little on these points, before he comes forward as a candidate for literary reputation.

It might, perhaps, have been as well if Mr. Harley had not entered upon politics, or lavished encomium on the *Toulon conflagration*, as we cannot agree with him in the following observation—

'Nor boots it who was right or who was wrong,
With morals what *has* politics to do?'

The beautiful poem which we shall here insert, though it will somewhat exceed our accustomed limits, cannot fail to convince every reader, that, in spite of trivial defects, Mr. Harley is a poet.

'LUBIN AND HIS DOG TRAY.

"Young Lubin was a shepherd boy,"
Who watch'd a rigid master's sheep,
And many a night was heard to sigh,
And many a day was seen to weep:

'For

- ' For not a lambkin e'er was lost,
Or wether stray'd to field remote ;
But Lubin ever was to blame,
Nor careful he, nor penn'd his cote.
- ' Yet not a trustier lad was known,
To climb the promontory's brow ;
Nor yet a tenderer heart e'er beat,
Beside the brook in vale below.
- ' From him stern winter's drifting snow,
Its pelting fleet, or frost severe ;
Or scorching summer's sultry ray,
Ne'er forc'd a murmur, or a tear.
- ' For ah ! the varying seasons had
To every hardship form'd his frame ;
Tho' still his tender feeling heart,
By nature nurs'd, remained the same.
- ' But whither shall the orphan fly
To meet protection's fostering power ?
Oppression waits the future day,
When misery marks the natal hour.
- ' An orphan lad poor Lubin was,
No friend, no relative had he !
His happiest hour was dash'd with woe,
His mildest treatment—tyranny.
- ' It chanc'd that o'er the boundless heath
One winter's day his flocks had spread ;
By hunger urg'd to seek the blade,
That lurk'd beneath its snowy bed.
- ' And hous'd at eve, his fleecy charge,
He, sorrowing, miss'd a favourite lamb,
That shunn'd the long persisting search,
Nor answer'd to its bleating dam.
- ' With heavy heart he shap'd his way,
And told so true, so sad a tale,
That almost pierc'd the marble breast
Of ruthless Rufus of the vale.
- ' Poor Lubin own'd his flocks had strayed,
Own'd he had suffer'd them to go ;
Yes !—he had learn'd to pity them,
For often he had hunger'd too :
- ' And had he to their pinching wants,
The unnipp'd neighb'ring bounds deny'd ;
They sure had dropp'd—as surely too,
The pitying shepherd boy had died.

' Then

- ‘ Then die!—th’ unfeeling master said,
And spurn’d him from his closing door;
Which, till he found his favourite lamb,
He vow’d should ne’er admit him more.
- ‘ Dark was the night, and o’er the waste
The whistling winds did fiercely blow,
And ’gainst his poor unshelter’d head,
With arrowy keenness came the snow :
- ‘ The small thick snow, that Eurus drives
In freezing fury o’er the plain,
And with unsparing vengeance, scores
The callous face of hardiest swain.
- ‘ Yet thus he left his master’s house,
And shap’d his sad uncertain way;
By man unnotic’d and forsook,
And follow’d but by—trusty Tray—
- ‘ Poor trusty Tray! a faithful dog;
Lubin and he were young together:
Still wou’d they grace each other’s side,
Whate’er the time, whate’er the weather,
- ‘ Unlike to worldly friends were they,
Who separate in fortune’s blast—
They still were near when fair the sky,
But nearer still when overcast.
- ‘ When Lubin’s random step involv’d
His body ’neath the drifted snow,
Tray help’d him forth; and when Tray fell,
Poor Lubin dragg’d him from below.
- ‘ Thus, ’midst the horrors of the night,
They enter’d on the houseless heath;
Above their heads no comfort broke,
Nor round about, nor underneath.
- ‘ No little cheering star they saw,
To light them on their dreary way;
Nor yet the distant twinkling blaze
Of cottage industry saw they.
- ‘ Nay e’en that most officious guide
Of those who roam and those who mope;
Retiring Will o’ th’ Wisp, refus’d
To trim the lamp of treach’rous hope.
- ‘ Nor parish bell was heard to strike,
The hour of “tardy-gaited night;”
No noise—but winds and screams of those
Ill-omen’d birds that shun the light.

- * Benumb'd at length his stiff'ning joints,
 His tongue to Tray cou'd scarcely speak;
 His tears congeal'd to icicles—
 His hair hung clatt'ring 'gainst his check.
- * As thus he felt his falt'ring limbs
 Give omen of approaching death,
 Aurora from her eastern hill
 Rush'd forth, and staid his fleeting breath;
- * And shew'd to his imperfect sight
 The harmless cause of all his woe!
 His little lambkin, cold and stiff!
 Stretch'd on its bed of glist'ning snow!
- * His heart's best chord was yet in tune,
 Unsnapp'd by cold severity;
 Touch'd was that chord—his dim eye beam'd,
 Suffused [with] sensibility.
- " 'Tis just! he said, that where thou liest,
 The careless shepherd boy shou'd lie;
 Thou died'st, poor fool! for want of food!
 I fall, for suffering thee to die.
- " But oh, my master!"—broken—short—
 Was every half-word now he spoke—
- " Severe has been, thy constant will,
 And galling sure thy heavy yoke.
- " But yet 'in all my best,' have I
 Without a 'plaint my hardships bore;
 Rufus!—may all thy pangs be past—
 Master!—my sufferings are no more!
- " A warmer couch hast thou to press,
 Secure from cramping frosts thy feet;
 And could'st thou boast so free a breast,
 Thou yet might'st die a death as sweet.
- " My trusty dog—that wistful look
 Is all that makes my poor heart heave;
 But hie thee home,—proclaim me dead,
 Forget to think—and cease to grieve."
- * So saying, shrunk the hapless youth,
 Beneath the chilling grasp of death;
 And, clasping poor Tray's shaggy neck,
 Sigh'd gently forth his parting breath!
- * His faithful, fond, sagacious dog,
 Hung watchful o'er his master's clay;
 And many a moan the old fool made,
 And many a thing he strove to say.

- ' He paw'd him with his hard-worn foot,
 He lick'd him with his scarce warm tongue,
 His cold nose strove to catch his breath,
 As to his clos'd lips close it clung.
- ' But not a sign of lurking life,
 Thro' all his frame he found to creep;
 He knew not what it was to die,
 But knew his master did not sleep.
- ' For still had he his slumbers watch'd,
 Through many a long and dismal night;
 And rous'd him from his pallet hard,
 To meet his toil e'er morning light.
- ' And well his brain remember'd yet,
 He never patter'd tow'rds his bed;
 Or lodg'd his long face on his cheek,
 But straight he stirr'd, or rais'd his head.
- ' Yes, he remember'd, and with tears,
 His loving master's kind replies;
 When dumbly he contriv'd to say,
 "The cock has crow'd, my master rise!"
- ' But now the paw, the scratch, the whine,
 To howlings chang'd, alone can tell
 The sufferings of instinctive love,
 When fruitless prov'd its simple spell.
- ' Great grief assail'd his untaught heart,
 And quickly laid its victim low!
 His master's cheek, his pillow cold,
 Their common bed the colder snow!

P. 15.

An Enquiry into the Foundation and History of the Law of Nations in Europe, from the Time of the Greeks and Romans, to the Age of Grotius. By Robert Ward, of the Inner Temple, Esq. Barrister at Law. 2 Vols. 8vo. 15s. Boards. Butterworth. 1795.

THE law of good walkers in the streets of London is, to keep the wall when your right hand is nearest, and to give the wall when your left hand is nearest to it. Thus by a simple rule much confusion is saved; and, except when an ignorant person deviates from this rule, people pass each other without difficulty. This custom may be called a law; yet, in strict definition, some very essential circumstances are wanting to make it a law. There is no superior power to enact it, and the infringement of it is not attended with punishment. There are many laws of the same kind, whose

observance

observance is evidently conducive to the happiness of mankind; yet many errors in reasoning upon them will arise, if we do not distinguish accurately between the vague and strict meaning of words; and perhaps there is no subject which has given rise, from want of accuracy, to more superfluous dispute, than that which is the basis of the treatise before us. The law of nations in Europe! Has any law ever been imposed by a superior power on the nations in Europe? or have these nations ever met and fixed on certain laws, to which they will conform under certain penalties? No such thing. There is no such thing as law of nations in Europe. There are certain customs prevailing in certain nations of Europe, which are violated in their turns by every one of them, according as it suits their convenience: there are only certain agreements or treaties between friendly nations; and if they disagree, recourse is had frequently to war, which sets all reason, honour, and justice, at defiance.

Yet, in all disputes between nations, each party objects to the other some breach of the law of nations; and it is very hard indeed, if each cannot find some pretext from that law to justify its conduct. Like the law of fashion, reputation, or honour, an equally undefined law, this law of nations is capricious: and there is scarcely any thing laid down to be just or unjust, according to this law, which, in the course of a few years, does not change its name and quality. Thus, not long ago every English historian did not fail to reprobate the conduct of the Spaniards towards the natives of America; and the hunting of them with dogs was looked upon as a refinement in cruelty, unworthy of a civilised nation. What will the English historians now say of the English nation, which has used the same species of dogs against an independent people, with whom it had entered into a treaty, and, on the conquest of this people, exercises the supposed right of conquest by transporting them to a distant and remote country? One of the principles, we should think, of the law of nations would be, that each nation should regulate, at its own discretion, its own internal concerns; but the late confederacies against France and Poland show in what estimation such a principle is held by the nations in Europe. The passage of an ambassador over a neutral territory might be supposed sacred: yet the late conduct of Austria shows, that this is not an inviolable principle of this law of nations. The treatment of an enemy when taken prisoner, was, in the times of chivalry, noble and generous; but now Fayette drags on his existence in a dungeon. Before the enemy was attacked, Rome in its best days made a solemn declaration of war; modern nations begin by seizing the defenceless ships of the enemy in their own harbours.

hours. If we were to go on in this manner, we should not, we fear, be able to speak much in praise of the practice of the nations of Europe. In their manifestos they may appeal on both sides to the law of nations; but the law of the strongest, in general, sets aside every other principle.

If the law of nations is really of so uncertain a nature, it is to be expected that an author will take some time in explaining what it is: and this is done, in the work before us, in many a page which might well have been spared, if the author had given himself the trouble of defining what he meant by law, and what by nations. As the limits, however, of our work will not permit us to give our readers the whole of the chapter, we will present them with the conclusion, from which, if they obtain any clear ideas, we confess that they have much the advantage over us—

‘ Upon the whole then, the account of the Law of Nations, is not greatly different from that of the municipal, which by all writers is considered as positive law. For both the one and the other look for their principles to reason; for their application, to regular institutions; and hence a writer of the last age has said, not improperly, that the law of nations holds the midway between civil law and the law of nature. When however they come to be broken, the difference is far more serious. The breach of municipal law is attended only by the punishment of the offender; (the law remaining still in force, strengthened perhaps by the very infraction:) the breach of the other, can only be remedied by the refusal of those who are injured to comply with it any longer, and the law itself is totally destroyed.’ Vol. i. p. 33.

Having settled what the law of nations is, we are treated in the next chapter with a long dissertation on the obligation of natural law, in which we were very glad to meet with the following passage, as it saved us a great deal of study, which we might have otherwise employed in endeavouring to analyse our author’s sentiments—

‘ Upon the whole then, if we consider mankind as totally independent of the control of civil institutions, and destitute of those inestimable advantages concerning the intentions and providence of the Deity, which his goodness has revealed to us; it would appear that the law of nature, as far as the particular ramifications of morality are concerned, is like the moral sense itself. That is, either it does not exist at all, or it is so confounded with our prejudices, and habits, and peculiar ideas of happiness; and so variously made up, according to the various casts of thought, and the varying perceptions of man, that with respect to the obligation in the universe to pursue the particular duties which it is said to enjoin, nothing certain can be satisfactorily laid down concerning it.’ Vol. i. p. 90.

The third chapter has for its title, the Foundation of the Law of Nations; and our law of nations is at once very much narrowed at the base; for it now appears to be, 'not the law of all nations, but only of such sets or classes of them as are united together by similar religions, and systems of morality.' Thus the poor Turk, who has dominions in Europe, and once made loud complaints against the christians for certain violations, as he thought them, of the laws of honour, and of nations, is driven out of the pale of this political church.

It was not difficult to bring instances in abundance, to show that the pretended law of nations is not, nor ever has been, the law of the world; and the different customs of different nations in different ages of the world, which form a series of entertaining anecdotes through the remainder of this volume,—if they add little to the knowledge intended to be communicated by this treatise,—may serve to revive, in the moments of leisure, the impressions made during a course of historical reading.

In the second volume is given an account of the influence of christianity, and ecclesiastical establishments,—of the influence of chivalry,—of the influence of treaties and conventions,—of the rank and claims of the nations of Europe,—and the last chapter but one gives the history of the law, continued from the fifteenth to the seventeenth century. The last chapter is dedicated to the age of Grotius, whose treatise is naturally panegyrised, though Puffendorf and Vattel come in for their respective encomiums.

'And thus (says our author) I have done with the account of this interesting law, after having endeavoured, possibly with too great minuteness of attention, to trace its progress in Europe through all its various revolutions. We have seen it, comparatively regular, though cruel, under the morality of the Greeks and Romans. We have marked its annihilation under the followers of Odin, and a barbarous religion: we have beheld it reviving under the influence of christianity.' At the same time I have attempted to point out the effects of all local circumstances upon that part of it which is positive; to trace the account of the uncertainty of the doctrines concerning it, till it is to be found resting at last upon sure ground, under the pilotage of the great jurist of the last century. The vast body of materials which has been brought together, has spun out the work to a length far beyond my expectation; yet I have purposely past aside a variety of interesting topics, and some very noble questions. I have done this, as well from the want of leisure from other occupations, as from the fear of fatiguing the reader; nor am I insensible how little qualified in many points I have been, for the execution of a work, whose subject at least must for ever be of consequence to mankind. Yet am I not totally without the hope, that those who are fond of

investigating the nature of their species as it is to be found in their actions, or who, not content with what is, are willing to be told what was, and how it came to be, will not absolutely throw away their time in perusing what is now with great diffidence committed to the world.' Vol. ii. p. 627.

Though the author now and then puzzled us with his philosopher of Delft, and philosopher of Erenada, and he appeared to us to be frequently, according to a vulgar saying, beating about the bush,—we will not say that our time was absolutely thrown away, in perusing what is now with so great diffidence committed to the world.

Sermons, by George Hill, D.D. F.R.S. Ed. Principal of St. Mary's College in the University of St. Andrew, one of the Ministers of that City, and one of his Majesty's Chaplains in ordinary for Scotland. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1796.

THE writer of these Sermons is a minister of the established church in Scotland: and the reader must bear this in mind, or he will be in danger of misapprehending, in many places, the meaning of the term established church; which occurs much oftener than necessary; and will suppose, that certain institutions were intended to flourish under a bench of bishops, instead of a Scotch presbytery. On the other hand, when the writer speaks in praises of the constitution, he certainly must mean the constitution of England, not that of Scotland; for it would be an insult to the understanding, to suppose that he could allude to the state of the representation of Scotland, when he talks in the following manner—

'This is the end of government: the measure in which this end is attained, forms the standard by which the excellence of every government ought to be tried; and we are happy as a nation, because this end is completely attained under that constitution, to which the favour of heaven hath conducted us. The security of our rights does not depend upon the caprice of any of the sons of men. Our persons and our good name are protected by laws which have been enacted with wisdom, and which are interpreted and executed with impartiality. Our property is secure against the violence of our neighbour; and it is not extorted for the public service by any arbitrary mandate, but is collected in the manner fixed by those who are the representatives of the people, who are bound by every tie to consult the interests of the people, and who bear their own share of every burden.' p. 402.

In a series of discourses addressed to the members of
Christ's

Christ's kingdom, (for the Scotch church pretends to look up to Christ as their head) we cannot see the propriety of alluding so much to politics, and particularly to talk of impartial justice, when late occurrences have occasioned, on this side of the Tweed, some very severe animadversions on the system, both in theory and practice, of their jurisprudence.

We did not know before that Edinburgh was so deficient in its accommodations for the religious instruction and worship of the poor: but, by this author's account, there seems to be a considerable defect in their police or their presbyteries—

‘ When, amidst the other improvements of this great and flourishing city, those who are entrusted with the management of its affairs, shall find leisure to erect churches, in which the lower orders of the citizens may procure convenient accommodation at a rate suited to their circumstances, all the gracious and wise purposes of the day which was made for man, will be here attained with regard to the poor. While they are furnished by this society, or by other persons actuated by the like benevolent spirit, with the means of making this day of rest a day of recollection, they will hear the form of sound words, and that doctrine which is according to godliness, from men who minister by the authority and under the inspection of this established church. They will not only be put in remembrance of those things which, from private instruction, they know and believe, but they will receive, in the most effectual and impressive manner, those lessons of peace, of honesty, of good order, and of every domestic duty, which form one great branch of our public discourses; and by all who shall observe its salutary influence upon their conduct, the preaching of the gospel will be esteemed both the wisdom of God to the salvation of the individual, and a blessing to the community.’ p. 392.

We recommend our preacher to read with attention the general letter of James, particularly the part in which he reproves the Christians of his days, for paying a much greater degree of attention to a well-dressed than to a poor brother; and then, perhaps, he may be able to convince his presbyteries, that one of the great faults among Christians is the distinction which they make in their assemblies between the rich and the poor,—a distinction not only not authorized by, but totally contrary to, the temper and precepts of the gospel.

In the first sermon from the words in 2 Pet. i. 12, the first head of the discourse informs us that—

‘ The words of the apostle suggest, in the first place, that it is not to be supposed the preaching of the gospel will contain any thing that is new to the hearers.’ p. 3.

Now we can see nothing in the apostle's language which
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can possibly suggest such an idea; and the preacher seems to have taken up this notion from a mistake, not uncommon, of the meaning of the words 'preaching the gospel.' Thus in London we have a denomination of ministers of the church of England, ignorantly called by their followers (for we should hope that none of the clergy could sanction the epithet) gospel preachers: and these ministers are supposed to preach the *everlasting gospel*, in opposition to others, whose sermons do not contain the same unction, but explain the good tidings of our Saviour with greater propriety. The mistake consists in this, that the words 'preach the gospel' have an appropriate meaning, namely, to proclaim good tidings or good news to persons who have not heard them; and consequently the preaching of the gospel does always contain something new to the hearers. The apostle, in writing his letter, had not need to proclaim anew these tidings: the thing was done; it was his part only to keep them in remembrance of the duties consequent upon hearing these tidings. The term now used, 'gospel preacher,' is particularly improper; for there is no need of preaching the gospel to a Christian church: the members are supposed to have heard and received the gospel; but the explanation of the scripture, and the doctrines of our Saviour and his apostles, must always form an essential part of the service of a Christian community. Again, the gospel preachers among us are distinguished by an epithet singularly ill applied: for a gospel preacher is a messenger of good tidings; but these falsely-called gospel preachers are distinguished chiefly by the very bad report they make to their audience; and instead of good news and consolation, their discourses run chiefly upon hell, the devil, and eternal misery.

In the two other heads, equal precision is wanting, and consequently we are not surprised at being told, that—

'If we keep in view the great end of preaching, we will seldom choose to introduce into our discourses from the pulpit, the various controversies which have disturbed the peace of the Christian world.' P. 9.

In the next page, our author gives a curious reason for avoiding controversies in the pulpit—

'Our church, by the standards which she requires her ministers to subscribe, hath wisely provided for the uniformity of teaching, and for the peace of your minds. These standards contain the present truth, in which you have been educated, in which we trust you are established, from which we wish not to depart, and within the limits of which are contained numberless subjects of useful preaching.' P. 11.

The articles of the Scotch church contain a summary of the controversies which had prevailed for many hundred years; and as it is of importance that the ministers should believe in this summary, it should seem that their hearers also had an interest in them, and consequently should sometimes be made acquainted with the arguments on which the article was founded. It is certain also that Paul, a very distinguished preacher, did not think controversy of so little consequence; for we read of the frequent disputes which he had with great men, both in and out of the church.

We will, however, do our author the justice to say, that his preaching is confined entirely within the limits set down in his first discourse. He troubles his hearers with neither novelty nor controversy. The records of the church are not disturbed, nor are any difficult passages in scripture elucidated. Each sermon moves on the harmless tenor of its way, and, except the continued mistake of *shall* for *will*, and *will* for *shall*, seldom suggests any thing to arrest the attention of the scholar, the man of taste, or the divine.

The Influence of Local Attachment with respect to Home, a Poem. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1796.

THERE is no species of poetry which has so much enlarged the bounds of the art, as the didactic. Through its medium, subjects the most abstruse and metaphysical are presented to the mind, adorned with the charms of splendid diction; and the pleasure we take in the ornaments of style, is, on the other hand, heightened by the interest we feel in the display of important facts, or the artful arrangement of elaborate system. The *Local Attachment*, founded on the great law of association, seems to be not unhappily chosen for a poem of this kind,—either from the importance of the principle, or the pleasing illustrations of which it is susceptible. In no country can the subject be more interesting, as the very term of *home* is peculiarly English; the Englishman, from his retired and domestic disposition, requiring more, perhaps, than the inhabitant of most other countries, the comforts suggested by the term, and which are but awkwardly and imperfectly suggested by the *mon chez moi*, which our neighbours have lately adopted through pure necessity. Nor do we hesitate to pronounce that the poem is executed in such a manner, as to do credit to the author, and give pleasure to his readers. The verse is always elegant, often brilliant; a great deal of pleasing descriptive poetry is happily introduced in the various illustrations which present themselves; the stanza is well ma-

naged, and free from that monotony, which in feeble hands it is apt to sink into; and, on the whole, we look upon the author, whose modesty has forbidden him to favour the public with his name, as a respectable accession to the present generation of poets. Before, however, we indulge our readers with a specimen, we must mention a few things *per contra*.—Pleasing as the subject is, it is more susceptible of illustration than plan: the principle of association has been so often unfolded, that little remains to be said on the philosophical part of the subject; and the heads or divisions have often an air of formality and dryness; as, where the local attachment is noticed as displayed, *on the spot where it originates, during absence from that spot, and on return to that spot after absence*.

To relieve this meagreness of plan, as usual in didactic poems, a story is introduced, and as usual also, it is an extraneous and rather a heavy addition to the poem. Nor can we subscribe to the sentiment the story is meant to illustrate; for it is not agreeable to fact, that the horror of so deep a catastrophe should endear the spot where it happened, to the surviving sufferer; and we find, that, in real life, persons who are very susceptible of impressions from the imagination, are more apt to quit an abode where a great loss has been sustained, than to grow attached to it. The remembrance of deep anguish, though past, we love not to dwell upon. Another circumstance which we cannot but notice, is, that the author, led indeed by the nature of his subject, treads too nearly in the track of another beautiful poem, which is present to the minds of most of our readers; and in the notes, he has taken, even verbatim, from those on the *Pleasures of Memory*. It may be said, indeed, that these illustrations were drawn from common sources: but it is impossible, nevertheless, not to believe that one was the original to the other. The beauty of the following specimen will sufficiently justify our opinion of the author's abilities—

‘ Yes! o’er his acres the green barley-blade
 He values more than fields of clustering rice;
 And rather shapes his way thro’ plashy glade
 Where crackles, at each step, the sheeted ice,
 Than mid gay groves of cassia, that entice
 The soul to pleasure, far diffusing balm:
 To him more dear the oak-crown’d precipice,
 Than the deep verdure of date-crested palm,
 Where all is lap’d in ease, one languor-breathing calm.

‘ To him more sweet thro’ ashen woods to rove,
 As eddying winds the foliage round him whirl,

Than

- Than cull the blossoms of an orange-grove
Skirted by rose-tree bowers, where rivulets purl
Mid basil tufts, and odorous breezes curl
The stream besprent with many a silver lot; ;
While, on the smooth canal, light ships unfurl
Their sportive sails, and gently as they float,
Flutter the billing doves, and croud the neighbouring cote.
- ‘ While the gay-gilded mosque shines, half-conceal’d
By samarinds and the broad-leav’d fycamore,
And, as beneath their trembling verdure veil’d,
Airs, Eden-born, delicious incense pour
Softening the fervours of the summer-hour !
While rich pomegranates bid their cooling seeds
To the parch’d palate a keen sense restore,
And, round each whispering islet of cane reeds,
Its melon’s grateful pulp the tepid water feeds. ,
- ‘ Not ivory palaces, their roofs inlaid
With massy gold, where thrones of coral glow
Starr’d with the gems of Ormuz ; not the shade
Ambrosial, waving its peach-flowers that blow
To pearly grapes, and kiss the turf below,
The genuine son of Albion could induce
His dairy-meads, his fallows to forego :
Not all the fruits, that bloom o’er every sluice,
Would, in his mind, outvie the redstreak’s vermeil juice.
- ‘ Nor, if to innocence a gentle smile
Beam, placid as the May’s mild morning-break ;
If, with a modest blush, to mark our isle,
Mantle to veins of azure the fair cheek ;
Are not the charms of foreign beauty weak,
Beauty, that wantons with voluptuous air ?
Can jetty ringlets that adorn the neck,
Sleek as they glisten to the sunny glare,
Rival, O Albion’s dames, your amber-brightening hair ?
- ‘ Yet pleasure views, and trembles at the gaze,
Those glossy tresses their luxuriance spread
To roseate essences ; the diamond-blaze
Of many a crescent on the turban’d head,
Or the pearl-lustre as by rainbows fed ;
The full dark eye ; the panting of the breast
Thro’ gauze that seems to kindle ; limbs that shed
Purpureal light by silken folds carest,
And the rich zone that checks the thin transparent vest.
- ‘ See, as the rose-lipt Almé weave the dance,
To melting airs they move, in amorous play ;

Or, arch with nods and wreathed smiles, they glance
 Their nimble feet to frolic measures gay :

The cymbal's notes to love new warmth convey :
 The burning aloe breathes its fragrance round.

O'er all the light saloon with sparkling ray
 The diamond trembles to the dancer's bound,
 While with fantastic mirth the dizzy roofs resound.

' See glowing virgins lave the polished limb,
 What time they bid the musky bath exhale

Its steaming odours, and along the brim
 The dalliance of the loves lascivious hail :

Or, when the clear night wafts her cooling gale,
 See their fine forms, as eve's last colours die,
 Slow on the flower-embroider'd terrace sail;
 While, glittering thro' its whole expanse, the sky
 With its deep azure shade relieves the wearied eye.

' Yes!—Home still charms: and he, who, clad in fur,
 His rapid rein-deer drives o'er plains of snow,

Would rather to the same wild tracts recur
 That various life had mark'd with joy or woe,

Than wander, where the spicy breezes blow
 To kiss the hyacinths of Azza's hair——

Rather, than where luxuriant summers glow,
 To the white mosses of his hills repair
 And bid his antler-train the simple banquet share.

' All love their native spot; whether beside
 Their ice-rib'd mountains thro' a waste of night,
 They catch the frost-gales from the stormy tide,
 And shiver to the boreal flashes bright;

Or, if the sun vouchsafe a noonday light,
 Hail, from the crags, his faint-reflected beams,
 And slide, o'er mouldering bridge, from height to height,
 Where pine, or ebony, or benreed gleams,
 To float their huge-hewn planks, along the gulphy streams :

' Or, whether blinded by the solar glare
 The moon-ey'd Indian amid poison'd dews
 Tainting the breeze, to balsam groves repair,
 And sleep, tho' venom many a plant diffuse :

Or whether he who journeys o'er Peru's
 Re-echoing caverns, heap his ore, to pave
 The streets with ingots, oft as he pursues
 His burthen'd beast, to where the boiling wave
 Once swallow'd Lima's walls, a universal grave.

' E'en now, where rages red Vesuvio's flame,
 Scarce from the fluid rocks his offspring fly ;

Tho'

Tho' cities, strown around, of ancient name,
The monuments of former vengeance lie.
And we have mark'd the indissoluble tie
By which a myriad down the yawning gloom
Descended erst, as Etna fir'd the sky——
By which a myriad that escap'd the doom,
Cling to the sulphur'd spot, and clasp their comrade's
tomb.' P. 17.

A System of Comparative Anatomy and Physiology. By B. Harwood, M. D. F. R. S. and F. S. A. Professor of Anatomy in the University of Cambridge, &c. Fascic I. 4to. B. and J. White. 1796.

WE have waited with much impatience for a work which has already excited the curiosity of scientific men. The university of Cambridge have afforded every liberal encouragement to their professor of anatomy in the prosecution of his researches; and a specimen of the result is before us. The first number, called by the author a Fasciculus, is composed of seventy-two pages of quarto letter press, nineteen of which are explanations of the plates; these last are executed by Heath, and taken from apparently accurate drawings.

The Preface and Dedication are deferred until the completion of the work, which is to be comprised in ten numbers, making two volumes. The Fasciculus which we are about to review, is divided into fourteen sections, forming a part of the first chapter, which is 'on the Brain, and Organs of Sense.' The first section is the Introduction, in which we do not meet with much novelty of thought, and less perspicuity of arrangement. An unfortunate metaphysical obscurity accompanies the first few passages; which, however, gradually cleared up as we proceeded: but our hopes of information were considerably damped, when we read, on the subject of the physiology of the brain—

'Abandoning the vain attempt, we flatter ourselves, that some resource is left to us in comparative anatomy; and indeed at first view it seems not at all improbable, that in different animals there should be some marked peculiarities in the structure of the brain, corresponding with their different habits and sagacities. Whatever our hopes or wishes may be; from this source little if any thing has hitherto been derived; nor have I advanced a single step beyond my predecessors.' P. 3.

This statement is, at least, modest spoken of himself; and a due tribute of praise is paid to the labours of Hunter, Camper, and Monro. The second section is on the brain particularly. The professor here arrives at a point wherein his own knowledge and experience is put to the test; and we are sorry to find reasons for suspecting that he has not been much in the habit of practical anatomy. He affirms that leeches, earth-worms, &c. have no brain; in each, however, he may discover a central mass of medullary substance in which all the nervous filaments meet. Neither is the observation 'that man possesses a much greater proportion of brain than any other animal,' a just one. Many small animals, such as mice and small birds, are evidences of the contrary.

The plates of Vicq. d'Azir are referred to; and Monro, Haller, Malpighi, and Willis, are quoted. We do not meet with any chemical analysis of the matter of brain, which we think a blamable omission. The third section commences the history of the Olfactory Nerves; and it is pursued through the remainder of the Fasciculus,—beginning with the Human Nose, and passing onward to the Herbivorous Quadruped,—the Carnivorous Quadruped,—the Olfactory Organs of Birds,—of Fishes, and of Amphibia. We then return to compare these severally with the same organ in man, and conclude with a physiological view of the Uses of the Sense of Smelling among Animals. The plates are fifteen in number, exhibiting views of the organs of smelling in some tribes of animals, but principally of the various arrangements and texture of bones in the cavities of the nose, as whether they are laminated or turbinated, whether with foramina or without; and upon these data our author decides his physiology in several classes of animals.—We think such grounds are infinitely too slight: and in many cases the correctness of the authors quoted is disputable. But lest the reader should suppose that we are biased in our criticism by a fondness for severe animadversion, rather than a love of justice, we will lay before him a few indiscriminate quotations, in order that he may be able to rate the professor's abilities for himself—

'The mode of connection between soul and body, and the agency of matter on spirit in the production of thought, are involved in impenetrable obscurity. Curiosity is eager to discover by what mechanism, distinct, and even opposite natures, can be united in the same creature; whilst a principle far more laudable, the desire of useful information, impels us to pursue the enquiry. If in matters of inferior importance, these motives be almost irresistible, can we wonder that men of distinguished ability, in every age,

age, have devoted so much time and thought to the investigation of the brain; that wonderful and anomalous organ, placed on the doubtful confines of the material and spiritual worlds?' P. I.

'The sense of smelling is less acute in man, than in any animal of the same class. His nostril is relatively small, and the conchi-form bones are not calculated to extend the sensitive surface, in any great degree. If, to remedy the defect, we suppose the size of the organ to be increased; and larger or more complex olfactory bones to be substituted, much inconvenience would result from the change. All the advantages which are derived from the spherical form of the head must be forfeited, to say nothing of the incalculable mischief, that would be sustained by the vocal organs. Again, if the nerve itself were endowed with a greater degree of sensibility, man would be subject to many evils from which he is now exempt, and receive no accession of instinctive power, for which experience and reason do not supply an equivalent.

'We conclude, therefore, that this sense is less acute in man, in consequence of the structure of the parts; that is, by the will of the Creator. Extreme subtilty of smell is essential neither to our subsistence, nor comfort, and has therefore yielded to considerations of greater importance.' P. 34.

To bring our critique to a close, we think that the professor of Cambridge deserves much commendation for this attempt at a work capable of being extended to so many useful purposes among men. We have judged freely of this part of his performance, and have committed ourselves unreservedly to the candid inquirer. We had really anticipated more new facts and observations in this almost unexplored field of inquiry than we have here met with. Neither the practical labours of the author, nor his reading, have been so extensive as we were led to expect. He has selected a variety of interesting and beautiful descriptions; they may lead to very extensive improvements or discoveries; but we cannot help thinking that the present state of anatomical knowledge would have admitted of a more ample scope in its first introduction. We are of opinion that if the author had begun at the opposite end of his subject, it would have been better. Instead of the brain and complex organs of sense coming first under this inquiry, we should have chosen for our plan, first—a view of all the component parts of a complicated animal, and their several specific properties;—then the peculiarities of animal matter, and the various phænomena of the living principle. Following this method, we should have naturally arrived first, at the consideration of simply constructed animals;—then the
different

different kinds of organisation, such as organs of digestion, of conveying nutrition to the different parts of the body,—organs for motion, and loco motion,—organs of intelligence,—the brain,—the senses, &c. &c. We are, however, sensible of the importance of Dr. Harwood's labours, and rather wish to point out imperfections, than to condemn his work, which is very worthy of a place in the library of every medical gentleman.

Camilla: or, a Picture of Youth. By the Author of Evelina and Cecilia. 5 Vols. 12mo. 1l. 1s. Sewed. Cadell and Davies. 1796.

THE province of the novellist has been too generally considered as among the very inferior departments of literature: and the only reason that can be assigned for so unjust a decision is, that it is more frequently attempted by incompetent persons than any other. For our own parts, we can discover no possible reason why an excellent production of this description should not be regarded with the same respect as any other work of imagination; and perhaps to frame a series of consistent incidents,—to display a variety of well-drawn characters,—to involve them in difficulties and embarrassments, and to extricate them by an ingenious, yet probable *denouement*,—may require powers of invention and fancy not inferior to those which are necessary to the construction of an epic poem, though the plot and incidents bear a relation only to the less dignified walks of private life. There indeed is one objection, which too commonly applies to works of this description, and from which the present, as well as the former productions of the excellent writer who is now under our animadversion, is not exempt; and that is, that, in these fictitious narratives, *love* is commonly represented as the main business of life. This is not true in fact, and it is not desirable that it should be impressed upon the minds of young persons; and yet it is much to be apprehended, that a novel without love, however moral and instructive it might be, would find but a very limited circulation.

In the literary circles which we have frequented, the observations upon the present work have in general turned on a comparison between this recent production, and the former works of our ingenious novellist; and this is a circumstance certainly in her favour; for great is the excellence of that writer, who appears without a competitor in the track that he has chosen to tread, and whose present exertions are only to be compared with his own former achievements in the lists of fame. We shall not, however, enter upon an estimate of the comparative merits of *Evelina*, *Cecilia*, or *Camilla*; they

have all their respective excellencies; and, according to the taste and habits of different readers, each will be preferred.

The heroine of the novel which now lies before us is the daughter of a respectable clergyman, the younger son of a baronet, whose elder brother (an old bachelor) having consumed his youth and health in the sports of the field, for which in the decline of life he has lost his relish, purchases an estate adjoining to the parsonage of Etherington, in order to spend the remainder of his days in the bosom of his family and relations. The partiality which in early life the old baronet, sir Hugh, conceives for his niece Camilla, induces him to declare her the heiress of his whole fortune; but from this design he is diverted by an accident which happens to her younger sister Eugenia, which deprives the latter of her beauty and her health, and of which sir Hugh considers himself as the cause. To make some amends for this injury, he revokes his former determination, and by a legal deed settles the whole of his property on his niece Eugenia. The character of the old baronet is excellently drawn; he is good-natured but ill-informed; well-meaning but capricious; and, ever sanguine in the pursuit of some favourite project, where he means to do a kindness he commonly only succeeds in producing some difficulty or embarrassment. Among the most curious of his projects, is that of commencing, at the age of fifty, that course of elementary studies which he had neglected in early life, and to the want of which he attributes whatever deficiency he experiences of happiness or respect. To this end he engages a doctor Orkborne, an old college acquaintance of his brother, to become his tutor; but after unsuccessfully attempting the Latin rudiments, he is induced to relinquish his plan; and that Dr. Orkborne may not be unemployed, his niece Eugenia is committed to his tuition. The mind of Eugenia is as perfect as her person is deformed; her progress in literature is great and rapid; and in the mean time the education of Camilla is not neglected by her excellent parents.

The principal incidents of the piece originate from a love attachment which takes place between Camilla and Edgar Mandlebert, a ward of her father's,—and the persecution which Eugenia undergoes from an unprincipled fortune-hunter, who, attracted by the report of her great expectancies, pursues her by various stratagems, and at last succeeds. The character of Camilla is that of an accomplished and attractive female, always actuated by the best principles, but whose liveliness of temper, and unguarded and unsuspecting nature are constantly exposing her to the most perplexing embarrassments. Edgar is a young man of strict conduct and principles, but whose penetration

penetration degenerates into suspicion, and his love of virtue into austerity. He is therefore led to put the most unfavourable construction on the juvenile errors of Camilla, and is on the point of sacrificing the happiness of both to the most unfounded jealousy. The scene of action is principally at Cieves, the mansion of sir Hugh,—and at Tunbridge and Southampton, where the folly and inanity of a watering-place are excellently depicted and exposed. The other characters, which serve to fill up the plot, are, Miss Margland, a fashionable governess,—Indiana Lynmere her fashionable pupil,—Clermont Lynmere a modern spendthrift,—Lionel the brother of Camilla, who affords, we fear, too just a picture of the conduct of young men at our universities,—Mrs. Arlbery and Mrs. Berlington, two women of fashion, with whom Camilla forms an intimacy,—sir Sedley Clarendel, a fashionable coxcomb,—Mr. Dubster and Mrs. Mittin, two vulgar citizens,—Melmond a romantic student,—lord O'Lerny a respectable peer,—his relation lady Isabella Irby,—and a group of officers, &c. who attend the ladies in their different excursions. We shall not anticipate any further the story, but shall proceed to lay a few extracts before our readers, though it is not easy to find passages so much detached from the thread of the narrative, as not to lose materially by the separation.

The following extracts contain an excellent and well-merited censure of modern customs, and as excellent a display of human life—

A Public Breakfast.——‘ The unsuiting, however customary, occasion of this speedy repetition of public amusement in the town of Northwick, was, that the county assizes were now held there; and the arrival of the judges of the land, to hear causes which kept life or death suspended, was the signal for entertainment to the surrounding neighbourhood: a hardening of human feelings against human crimes and human miseries, at which reflection revolts, however habit may persevere.

‘ The young men, who rode on first, joined the ladies as they entered the town, and told them to drive straight to the ball-room, where the company had assembled, in consequence of a shower of rain which had forced them from the public garden intended for the breakfast.

‘ Here, as they stopt, a poor woman, nearly in rags, with one child by her side, and another in her arms, approached the carriage, and presenting a petition, besought the ladies to read or hear her case. Eugenia with the ready impulse of generous affluence, instantly felt for her tale; but Miss Margland, angrily holding her hand, said, with authority: “ Miss Eugenia, never encourage beggars; you don't know the mischief you may do by it.” Eugenia

nia reluctantly desisted, but made a sign to her footman to give something for her. Edgar then alighting, advanced to hand them from the coach, while Lionel ran forward to settle their tickets of admittance.

‘The woman now grew more urgent in her supplications, and Miss Margland in her remonstrances against attending to them.

‘Indiana, who was placed under the care of Edgar, enchanted to again display herself where sure of again being admired, neither heard nor saw the petitioner; but dimpling and smiling, quickened her motions towards the assembly room: while Camilla, who was last, stopping short, said; “What is the matter, poor woman?” and took her paper to examine.

‘Miss Margland, snatching it from her, threw it on the ground, peremptorily saying: “Miss Camilla, if once you begin such a thing as that, there will be no end to it; so come along with the rest of your company, like other people.”

‘She then haughtily proceeded; but Camilla, brought up by her admirable parents never to pass distress without inquiry, nor to refuse giving at all, because she could give but little, remained with the poor object, and repeated her question. The woman, shedding a torrent of tears, said she was wife to one of the prisoners who was to be tried the next day, and who expected to lose his life, or be transported, for only one bad action of stealing a leg of mutton; which, though she knew it to be a sin, was not without excuse, being a first offence, and committed in poverty and sickness. And this, she was told, the judges would take into consideration; but her husband was now so ill, that he could not feed on the gaol allowance, and not having wherewithal to buy any other, would either die before his trial, or be too weak to make known his sad story in his own behalf, for want of some wine or some broth to support him in the meanwhile.

‘Camilla, hastily giving her a shilling, took one of her petitions, and promising to do all in her power to serve her, left the poor creature almost choked with sobbing joy. She was flying to join her party, when she perceived Edgar at her side. “I came to see,” cried he, with glistening eyes, “if you were running away from us; but you were doing far better in not thinking of us at all.”

‘Camilla, accustomed from her earliest childhood to attend to the indigent and unhappy, felt neither retreating shame, nor parading pride in the office; she gave him the petition of the poor woman, and begged he would consider if there was any thing that could be done for her husband.

“I had received a paper from herself,” he answered, “before you alighted; and I hope I should not have neglected it: but I will now take yours, that my memory may run no risk.”

‘They then went on to the assembly room.’ Vol. i. p. 190.

The title of the succeeding chapter is, 'A Raffle;' and in their progress the following scene occurs—

'They were advanced within half a mile of Northwick, when a sick man, painfully supported by a woman with a child in her arms, caught their eyes. The ready hand of Eugenia was immediately in her pocket; Camilla, looking more intently upon the group, perceived another child, and presently recognised the wife of the prisoner. She called to the coachman to stop, and Edgar, at the same moment, rode up to the carriage.

'Miss Margland angrily ordered the man to drive on, saying, she was quite sick of being thus for ever infested with beggars; who really came so often, they were no better than pick-pockets.

"O, don't refuse to let me speak to them!" cried Camilla; "it will be such a pleasure to see their joy!"

"O yes! they look in much joy indeed! they seem as if they had not eat a morsel these three weeks! Drive on, I say, coachman! I like no such melancholy sights, for my part. They always make me ill. I wonder how any body can bear them."

"But we may help them; we may assist them!" said Camilla, with increasing earnestness.

"And pray, when they have got all our money, who is to help us?"

'Eugenia, delighted to give, but unhabituated to any other exertion, flung half a crown to them; and Indiana, begging to look out, said, "Dear! I never saw a prisoner before!"

'Encouraged by an expressive look from Camilla, Edgar dismounted to hand her from the carriage, affecting not to hear the remonstrances of Miss Margland, though she scrupled not to deliver them very audibly. Eugenia languished to join them, but could not venture to disobey a direct command; and Indiana, observing the road to be very dusty, submitted, to save a pair of beautiful new shoes.

'Camilla had all the gratification she promised herself, in witnessing the happiness of the poor petitioner. He was crawling to Cleves, with his family, to offer thanks. They were penniless, sick, and wretched; yet the preservation of the poor man seemed to make misery light to them all. Edgar desired to know what were their designs for the future. The man answered that he should not dare go back to his own country, because there his disgrace was known, and he should procure no work; nor, indeed, was he now able to do any. "So we must make up our minds to beg from door to door, and in the streets, and on the high road," he continued; "till I get back a little strength; and can earn a living more creditably."

"But as long as we have kept you alive, and saved you from being transported," said his wife, "for which all thanks be due to
this

this good gentleman, we shall mind no hardships, and never go astray again, in wicked unthinkingness of this great mercy."

'Edgar inquired what had been their former occupations; they answered, they had both been day-workers in the field, till a fit of sickness had hindered the poor man from getting his livelihood: penury and hunger then pressing hard upon them all, he had been tempted to commit the offence for which he was taken, and brought to death's door. "But as now," he added, "I have been saved, I shall make it a warning for the time to come, and never give myself up to so bad a course again."

'Edgar asked the woman what money she had left.

"Ah, sir, none! for we had things to pay, and people to satisfy, and so every thing you and the good ladies gave us, is all gone; for, while any thing was left us, they would not be easy. But this is no great mischief now, as my husband is not taken away from us, and is come to a right sense."

"I believe," said Edgar, "you are very good sort of people, however distress had misguided you."

'He then put something into the man's hand, and Eugenia, who from the carriage window heard what passed, flung him another half crown; Camilla added a shilling, and turning suddenly away, walked a few paces from them all.

'Edgar, gently following, inquired if any thing was the matter; her eyes were full of tears: "I was thinking," she cried, "what my dear father would have said, had he seen me giving half a guinea for a toy, and a shilling to such poor starving people as these!"

"Why, what would he have said?" cried Edgar, charmed with her penitence, though joining in the apprehended censure.

"He would more than ever have pitied those who want money, in seeing it so squandered by one who should better have remembered his lessons! O, if I could but recover that half guinea!"

Vol. i. p. 226.

The admirable instructions of a father to a daughter, on her first entrance into life, we willingly insert for the benefit of our young readers. The chapter which contains them, is entitled 'A Sermon;' and such they are in reality.

'For Miss Camilla Tyndal.

'It is not my intention to enumerate, my dear Camilla, the many blessings of your situation; your heart is just and affectionate, and will not forget them: I mean but to place before you your immediate duties, satisfied that the review will ensure their performance.

'Unused to, because undeserving control, your days, to this period, have been as gay as your spirits. It is now first that your tranquillity is ruffled; it is now, therefore, that your fortitude has its first debt to pay for its hitherto happy exemption.

'Those

‘ Those who weigh the calamities of life only by the positive, the substantial, or the irremediable mischiefs which they produce, regard the first sorrows of early youth as too trifling for compassion. They do not enough consider that it is the suffering, not its abstract cause, which demands human commiseration. The man who loses his whole fortune, yet possesses firmness, philosophy, a disdain of ambition, and an accommodation to circumstances, is less an object of contemplative pity, than the person who, without one real deprivation, one actual evil, is first, or is suddenly forced to recognise the fallacy of a cherished and darling hope.

‘ That its foundation has always been shallow is no mitigation of disappointment to him who had only viewed it in its superstructure. Nor is its downfall less terrible to its visionary elevator, because others had seen it from the beginning as a folly or a chimera; its dissolution should be estimated, not by its romance in the unimpassioned examination of a rational looker on, but by its believed promise of felicity to its credulous projector.

‘ Is my Camilla in this predicament? had she wove her own destiny in the speculation of her wishes? Alas! to blame her, I must first forget, that delusion, while in force, has all the semblance of reality, and takes the same hold upon the faculties as truth. Nor is it till the spell is broken, till the perversion of reason and error of judgment become wilful, that Scorn ought to point “its finger” or Censure its severity.

‘ But of this I have no fear. The love of right is implanted indelibly in your nature, and your own peace is as dependant as mine and as your mother’s upon its constant culture.

‘ Your conduct hitherto has been committed to yourself. Satisfied with establishing your principles upon the adamant pillars of religion and conscience, we have not feared leaving you the entire possession of general liberty. Nor do I mean to withdraw it, though the present state of your affairs, and what for some time past I have painfully observed of your precipitance, oblige me to add partial counsel to standing precept, and exhortation to advice. I shall give them, however, with diffidence, fairly acknowledging and blending my own perplexities with yours.

‘ The temporal destiny of woman is enwrapt in still more impenetrable obscurity than that of man. She begins her career by being involved in all the worldly accidents of a parent; she continues it by being associated in all that may environ a husband: and the difficulties arising from this doubly appendant state, are augmented by the next to impossibility, that the first dependance should pave the way for the ultimate. What parent yet has been gifted with the foresight to say, “I will educate my daughter for the station to which she shall belong?” Let us even suppose that station to be fixed by himself, rarely as the chances of life authorise such a presumption; his daughter all duty, and the partner of his own selection

selection solicitous of the alliance : is he at all more secure he has provided even for her external welfare ? What, in this sublunary existence, is the state from which she shall neither rise or fall ? Who shall say that in a few years, a few months, perhaps less, the situation in which the prosperity of his own views has placed her, may not change for one more humble than he has fitted her for enduring, or more exalted than he has accomplished her for sustaining ? The conscience, indeed, of the father is not responsible for events, but the infelicity of the daughter is not less a subject of pity.

‘ Again, if none of these outward and obvious vicissitudes occur, the proper education of a female, either for use or for happiness, is still to seek, still a problem beyond human solution ; since its refinement, or its negligence, can only prove to her a good or an evil, according to the humour of the husband into whose hands she may fall. If fashioned to shine in the great world, he may deem the metropolis all turbulence ; if endowed with every resource for retirement, he may think the country distasteful. And though her talents, her acquirements, may in either of these cases be set aside, with an only silent regret of wasted youth and application ; the turn of mind which they have induced, the appreciation which they have taught of time, of pleasure, or of utility, will have nurtured inclinations and opinions not so ductile to new sentiments and employments, and either submission becomes a hardship, or resistance generates dissention.

‘ If such are the parental embarrassments, against which neither wisdom nor experience can guard, who should view the filial without sympathy and tenderness ?

‘ You have been brought up, my dear child, without any specific expectation. Your mother and myself, mutually deliberating upon the uncertainty of the female fate, determined to educate our girls with as much simplicity as is compatible with instruction, as much docility for various life as may accord with invariable principles, and as much accommodation with the world at large, as may combine with a just distinction of selected society. We hoped, thus, should your lots be elevated, to secure you from either exulting arrogance, or bashful insignificance ; or should they, as is more probable, be lowly, to instil into your understandings and characters such a portion of intellectual vigour as should make you enter into an humbler scene without debasement, helplessness, or repining.

‘ It is now, Camilla, we must demand your exertions in return. Let not these cares, to fit you for the world as you may find it, be utterly annihilated from doing you good, by the uncombated sway of an unavailing, however well-placed attachment.

‘ We will not here canvass the equity of that freedom by which women as well as men should be allowed to dispose of their own

affections. There cannot, in nature, in theory, nor even in common sense, be a doubt of their equal right: but disquisitions on this point will remain rather curious than important, till the speculatist can superinduce to the abstract truth of the position some proof of its practicability.

‘ Meanwhile, it is enough for every modest and reasonable young woman to consider, that where there are two parties, choice can belong only to one of them: and then let her call upon all her feelings of delicacy, all her notions of propriety, to decide: since man must choose woman, or woman man, which should come forward to make the choice? Which should retire to be chosen?

‘ A prepossession directed towards a virtuous and deserving object wears, in its first approach, the appearance of a mere tribute of justice to merit. It seems, therefore, too natural, perhaps too generous, to be considered either as a folly or a crime. It is only its encouragement where it is not reciprocal, that can make it incur the first epithet, or where it ought not to be reciprocal that can brand it with the second. With respect to this last, I know of nothing to apprehend:—with regard to the first—I grieve to wound my dearest Camilla, yet where there has been no subject for complaint, there can have been none for expectation.

‘ Struggle then against yourself as you would struggle against an enemy. Refuse to listen to a wish, to dwell even upon a possibility, that opens to your present idea of happiness. All that in future may be realised probably hangs upon this conflict. I mean not to propose to you in the course of a few days to reinstate yourself in the perfect security of a disengaged mind. I know too much of the human heart to be ignorant that the acceleration, or delay, must depend upon circumstance: I can only require from you what depends upon yourself, a steady and courageous warfare against the two dangerous underminers of your peace and of your fame, imprudence and impatience. You have champions with which to encounter them that cannot fail of success,—good sense and delicacy.

‘ Good sense will shew you the power of self-conquest, and point out its means. It will instruct you to curb those unguarded movements which lay you open to the strictures of others. It will talk to you of those boundaries which custom forbids your sex to pass, and the hazard of any individual attempt to transgress them. It will tell you, that where allowed only a negative choice, it is your own best interest to combat against a positive wish. It will bid you, by constant occupation, vary those thoughts that now take but one direction, and multiply those interests which now recognise but one object: and it will soon convince you, that it is not strength of mind which you want, but reflection, to obtain a strict and unremitting control over your passions.

‘ This last word will pain, but let it not shock you. You have
no

no passions, my innocent girl, at which you need blush, though enough at which I must tremble!—For in what consists your constraint, your forbearance? your wish is your guide, your impulse is your action. Alas! never yet was mortal created so perfect, that every wish was virtuous, or every impulse wise!

‘ Does a secret murmur here demand: if a discerning predilection is no crime, why, internally at least, may it not be cherished? whom can it injure or offend, that, in the hidden recesses of my own breast, I nourish superior preference of superior worth?

‘ This is the question with which every young woman beguiles her fancy; this is the common but seductive opiate, with which inclination lulls reason.

‘ The answer may be safely comprised in a brief appeal to her own breast.

‘ I do not desire her to be insensible to merit; I do not even demand she should confine her social affections to her own sex, since the most innocent esteem is equally compatible, though not equally general with ours: I require of her simply, that, in her secret hours, when pride has no dominion, and disguise would answer no purpose, she will ask herself this question, “ Could I calmly hear that this elect of my heart was united to another? Were I to be informed that the indissoluble knot was tied, which annihilates all my own future possibilities, would the news occasion me no affliction?” This, and this alone, is the test by which she may judge the danger, or the harmlessness of her attachment.

‘ I have now endeavoured to point out the obligations which you may owe to good sense. Your obligations to delicacy will be but their consequence.

‘ Delicacy is an attribute so peculiarly feminine, that were your reflections less agitated by your feelings, you could delineate more distinctly than myself its appropriate laws, its minute exactions, its sensitive refinements. Here, therefore, I seek but to bring back to your memory what livelier sensations have inadvertently driven from it.

‘ You may imagine, in the innocency of your heart, that what you would rather perish than utter can never, since untold, be suspected: and, at present, I am equally sanguine in believing no surmise to have been conceived where most it would shock you: yet credit me when I assure you, that you can make no greater mistake, than to suppose that you have any security beyond what sedulously you must earn by the most indefatigable vigilance. There are so many ways of communication independent of speech, that silence is but one point in the ordinances of discretion. You have nothing, in so modest a character, to apprehend from vanity or presumption; you may easily, therefore, continue the guardian of your own dignity: but you must keep in mind, that our perceptions want but little quickening to discern what may flatter them;

them; and it is mutual to either sex to be to no gratification so alive, as to that of a conscious ascendance over the other.

‘ Nevertheless, the female who, upon the softening blandishment of an undisguised prepossession, builds her expectation of its reciprocity, is, in common, most cruelly deceived. It is not that she has failed to awaken tenderness; but it has been tenderness without respect: nor yet that the person thus elated has been insensible to flattery; but it has been a flattery to raise himself, not its exciter in his esteem. The partiality which we feel inspires diffidence: that which we create has a contrary effect. A certainty of success in many destroys, in all weakens, its charm: the bashful excepted, to whom it gives courage; and the indolent, to whom it saves trouble.

‘ Carefully, then, beyond all other care, shut up every avenue by which a secret which should die untold can further escape you. Avoid every species of particularity; neither shun nor seek any intercourse apparently; and in such meetings as general prudence may render necessary, or as accident may make inevitable, endeavour to behave with the same open esteem as in your days of unconsciousness. The least unusual attention would not be more suspicious to the world, than the least undue reserve to the subject of our discussion. Coldness or distance could only be imputed to resentment; and resentment, since you have received no offence, how, should it be investigated, could you vindicate? or how, should it be passed in silence, secure from being attributed to pique and disappointment?

‘ There is also another motive, important to us all, which calls for the most rigid circumspection. The person in question is not merely amiable; he is also rich: mankind at large, therefore, would not give merely to a sense of excellence any obvious predilection. This hint will, I know, powerfully operate upon your disinterested spirit.

‘ Never from personal experience may you gather, how far from soothing, how wide from honourable, is the species of compassion ordinarily diffused by the discovery of an unreturned female regard. That it should be felt unsought may be considered as a mark of discerning sensibility; but that it should be betrayed uncalled for, is commonly, however ungenerously, imagined rather to indicate ungoverned passions, than refined selection. This is often both cruel and unjust; yet, let me ask—Is the world a proper confidant for such a secret? Can the woman who has permitted it to go abroad, reasonably demand that consideration and respect from the community, in which she has been wanting to herself? To me it would be unnecessary to observe, that her indiscretion may have been the effect of an inadvertence which owes its origin to artlessness, not to forwardness: she is judged by those, who, hardened in the ways of men, accustom themselves to trace in evil every motive.

motive to action; or by those, who, preferring ridicule to humanity, seek rather to amuse themselves wittily with her susceptibility, than to feel for its innocence and simplicity.

‘ In a state of utter constraint, to appear natural is, however, an effort too difficult to be long sustained; and neither precept, example, nor disposition, have enured my poor child to the performance of any studied part. Discriminate, nevertheless, between hypocrisy and discretion. The first is a vice; the second a conciliation to virtue. It is the bond that keeps society from disunion; the veil that shades our weakness from exposure, giving time for that interior correction, which the publication of our infirmities would else, with respect to mankind, make of no avail.

‘ It were better no doubt, worthier, nobler, to meet the scrutiny of our fellow-creatures by consent, as we encounter, per force, the all-viewing eye of our Creator: but since for this we are not sufficiently without blemish, we must allow to our unstable virtues all the encouragement that can prop them. The event of discovered faults is more frequently callousness than amendment; and propriety of example is as much a duty to our fellow-creatures, as purity of intention is a debt to ourselves.

‘ To delicacy, in fine, your present exertions will owe their future recompence, be your ultimate lot in life what it may. Should you, in the course of time, belong to another, you will be shielded from the regret that a former attachment had been published; or should you continue mistress of yourself, from a blush that the world is acquainted it was not by your choice.

‘ I shall now conclude this little discourse by calling upon you to annex to whatever I have offered you of precept, the constant remembrance of your mother for example.

‘ In our joint names, therefore, I adjure you, my dearest Camilla, not to embitter the present innocence of your suffering by imprudence that may attach to it censure, nor by indulgence that may make it fasten upon your vitals! Imprudence cannot but end in the demolition of that dignified equanimity, and modest propriety, which we wish to be uniformly remarked as the attributes of your character: and indulgence, by fixing, may envenom a dart that as yet may be gently withdrawn, from a wound which kindness may heal, and time may close; but which, if neglected, may wear away, in corroding disturbance, all your life's comfort to yourself, and all its social purposes to your friends and to the world.’
AUGUSTUS TYROLD.—Vol. iii. p. 59.

The following scene, which occurs in a booth of dancing monkeys at Tunbridge, is excellent—

‘ In a few minutes, the performers were ready for a new exhibition. They were dressed up as soldiers, who, headed by a corporal, came forward to do their exercises.

‘ Mrs. Arlbery, laughing, told the general, as he was upon duty,

he should himself take the command: the general, a pleasant, yet cool and sensible man, did not laugh less; but the ensign, more warm tempered, and wrong headed, seeing a feather in a monkey's cap, of the same colour, by chance, as in his own, fired with hasty indignation, and rising, called out to the master of the booth: "What do you mean by this, sir? do you mean to put an affront upon our corps?"

"The man, startled, was going most humbly to protest his innocence of any such design; but the laugh raised against the ensign amongst the audience gave him more courage, and he only simpered without speaking.

"What do you mean by grinning at me, sir?" said Macdersey; "do you want me to cane you?"

"Cane me!" cried the man enraged, "by what rights?"

"Macdersey, easily put off all guard, was stepping over the benches, with his cane uplifted, when his next neighbour, tightly holding him, said, in a half whisper, "If you'll take my advice, you'd a deal better provoke him to strike the first blow."

"Macdersey, far more irritated by this counsel than by the original offence, fiercely looked back, calling out "The first blow! What do you mean by that, sir?"

"No offence, sir," answered the person, who was no other than the slow and solemn Mr. Dubster; "but only to give you a hint for your own good; for if you strike first, being in his own house, as one may say, he may take the law of you."

"The law!" repeated the fiery ensign; "the law was made for poltroons: a man of honour does not know what it means."

"If you talk at that rate, sir," said Dubster, in a low voice, "it may bring you into trouble."

"And who are you, sir, that take upon you the presumption to give me your opinion?"

"Who am I, sir? I am a gentlemen, if you must needs know."

"A gentleman! who made you so?"

"Who made me so? why leaving off business! what would you have make me so? you may tell me if you are any better, if you come to that."

"Macdersey, of an ancient and respectable family, incensed past measure, was turning back upon Mr. Dubster; when the general, taking him gently by the hand, begged he would recollect himself.

"That's very true, sir, very true, general!" cried he, profoundly bowing; "what you say is very true. I have no right to put myself into a passion before my superior officer, unless he puts me into it himself; in which case 'tis his own fault. So I beg your pardon, general, with all my heart. And I'll go out of the booth without another half syllable. But if ever I detect any of those monkies mocking us, and wearing our feathers, when you a'n't by, I sha'n't put up with it so mildly. I hope you'll excuse me, general." Vol. iii. p. 244.

The observations of lord O'Lerney, on those sinks of folly, vice, and infamy—watering places, are truly deserving the attention of parents—

“ I should be glad,” continued his lordship, “ to hear this young lady were either well established, or returned to her friends without becoming an object of public notice. A young woman is no where so rarely respectable, or respected, as at these water-drinking places, if seen at them either long or often. The search of pleasure and dissipation, at a spot consecrated for restoring health to the sick, the infirm, and the suffering, carries with it an air of egotism, that does not give the most pleasant idea of the feeling and disposition.”

“ Yet, may not the sick, my lord, be rather amended than hurt by the sight of gaiety around them ?”

“ Yes, my dear lady Isabella ; and the effect, therefore, I believe to be beneficial. But as this is not the motive why the young and the gay seek these spots, it is not here they will find themselves most honoured. And the mixture of pain and illness with splendor and festivity, is so unnatural, that probably it is to that we must attribute that a young woman is no where so hardly judged. If she is without fortune, she is thought a female adventurer, seeking to sell herself for its attainment ; if she is rich, she is supposed a willing dupe, ready for a snare, and only looking about for an ensnarer.”

“ And yet, young women seldom, I believe, my lord, merit this severity of judgment. They come but hither in the summer, as they go to London in the winter, simply in search of amusement, without any particular purpose.”

“ True ; but they do not weigh what their observers weigh for them, that the search of public recreation in the winter is, from long habit, permitted without censure ; but that the summer has not, as yet, prescription so positively in its favour ; and those who, after meeting them all the winter at the opera, and all the spring at Ranelagh, hear of them all the summer at Cheltenham, Tunbridge, &c. and all the autumn at Bath, are apt to inquire, when is the season for home.”

“ Ah, my lord ! how wide are the poor inconsiderate little flutters from being aware of such a question ! How necessary to youth and thoughtlessness is the wisdom of experience !”

“ Why does she not come this way ? thought Edgar ; why does she not gather from these mild, yet understanding moralists, instruction that might benefit all her future life ?

“ There is nothing,” said lord O'Lerney, “ I more sincerely pity than the delusions surrounding young females. The strongest admirers of their eyes are frequently the most austere satirists of their conduct.” Vol. iii. p. 348.

From these specimens, the public will perceive that they will not only derive much entertainment but instruction from the perusal of these volumes. One fault we must recommend to Mrs. D'Arblay, to correct, in a future edition,—and it is a fault which we also discovered in perusing her *Evelina*:—her female characters are *too young* to act the part which she assigns them. The errors of Camilla are not errors in one who is almost a child,—and the wisdom, knowledge, and prudence of Eugenia at fifteen, are preposterous.—This objection, however, may be easily removed; and it does not affect the merit of the work, as an admirable picture of modern life.

An Enquiry how far the Punishment of Death is necessary in Pennsylvania. With Notes and Illustrations. By William Bradford, Esq. To which is added, an Account of the Goal and Penitentiary House of Philadelphia, and of the interior Management thereof. By Caleb Lowmes, of Philadelphia. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1795.

THERE is scarcely any topic which has been discussed with more good sense and rational philosophy than the imperfect and sanguinary state of criminal legislation in most of the governments of Europe.

Some attempts have been made to infuse principles of amelioration into the frightful mass of penal law:—the criminal code of Tuscany, in particular, presents a gratifying specimen of the success which has attended such efforts, under the auspices of a judicious prince:—still, however, those countries, where the evil exists in its greatest magnitude, have hitherto declined to adopt a successful example of practical remedy; and the well-informed professors of English jurisprudence, while they have admired the principles and admitted the conclusions of a Montesquieu and a Beccaria, have yet neglected to urge with spirit and perseverance the necessity of a reform in a part of the system, notoriously defective in discrimination, and which, to descriptions of offence most shockingly numerous, applies the awful punishment of death.

In several of the states of America, the reform of the criminal law seems to have become an object of very serious attention: the plans adopted for that purpose, the practical assiduity with which they have been pursued, and the degrees in which they promise success, may be collected from the present publication. The author (William Bradford, esq.) is stated, in the Advertisement to the present edition, to be the gentleman

gentleman who was formerly attorney-general to the state of Pennsylvania, and who now fills the same office for the United States.

In the Advertisement to the Philadelphia edition of this work, its origin and scope are thus related—

‘ The following Memoir was written at the request, and presented to the governor of Pennsylvania, on the third day of last December. The nature of this communication, as well as the necessity of completing it by that day, required brevity ; and a more extended view of the subject was, on many accounts, inexpedient. Hence, some information, which might have been proper in a work designed for general circulation, was suppressed, and the experience of other countries was rather glanced at than explained.

‘ It having been thought advisable to publish this Memoir in its present form, an opportunity was afforded the writer of making such additions as his other avocations would permit. Further time would have enabled him to furnish more accurate and particular information of the experience of the other states: but those who have interested themselves in this publication, think it ought not to be any longer delayed.

‘ The additional information might have been advantageously blended with the original memoir : but as the senate of the commonwealth have honoured that work, by placing it on their journals, there was a propriety in keeping it distinct. The new matter is therefore thrown into the form of notes and illustrations at the end of the memoir ; a few paragraphs only, necessary to introduce the notes, being added to the text.

‘ Although the world has seen a profusion of theory on the subject of the criminal law, it is to be regretted that so few writers have been solicitous “ to throw the light of experience upon it.” To supply, in some measure, this defect ; to collect the scattered rays which the juridical history of our own and other countries afford, and to examine how far the maxims of philosophy abide the test of experiment, have, therefore, been the leading objects of this work. The facts adduced, are stated with as much brevity as was consistent with clearness ; and, as accuracy was indispensable, none have been lightly assumed, and few without a coincidence of authorities.

‘ *Philadelphia, Feb. 26, 1793.*’ p. 3.

The track which is here so intelligently pointed out, has happily been found to lead to the most salutary and desirable improvement in the criminal jurisprudence of several of the American states.

That Mr. Bradford *, while he has bestowed on this subject the practical attention of a magistrate, has also treated it with the spirit and precision of a philosopher, will appear from the following extracts—

‘ If capital punishments are abolished, their place must be supplied by solitary imprisonment, hard labor, or stripes: and it has been often urged, that the apprehension of these would be more terrible and impressive than death. This may be the case where great inequality is established between the citizens, where the oppressions of the great drive the lower classes of society into penury and despair, where education is neglected, manners ferocious, and morals depraved. In such countries—and such there are in Europe—the prospect of death can be no restraint to the wretch whose life is of so little account, and who willingly risks it to better his condition. But in a nation where every man is, or may be a proprietor, where labor is bountifully rewarded, and existence is a blessing of which the poorest citizen feels the value, it cannot be denied, that death is considered as the heaviest punishment the law can inflict. The impression it makes on the public mind is visible when a criminal is tried for his life. We see it in the general expectation—in the numbers that throng the place of trial—in the looks of the prisoner—in the anxious attention and long deliberation of the jury, and in the awful silence which prevails while the verdict is given in by their foreman. All these announce the inestimable value which is set on the life of a citizen. But the reverse of this takes place when imprisonment at hard labour is the punishment, and the minds of all present are free from the weight, which oppresses them during a trial of a capital charge. The dread of death is natural, universal, impressible: and destruction is an idea so simple that all can comprehend and estimate it: while the punishment of imprisonment and hard labor, secluded from common observation, and consisting of many parts, requires to be contemplated or felt, before its horrors can be realized.

‘ But, while this truth is admitted in the abstract, it cannot be denied, that the terror of death is often so weakened by the hopes of impunity, that the less punishment seems a curb as strong as the greater. The prospect of escaping detection, and the hopes of an acquittal or pardon, blunt its operation, and defeat the expectations of the legislature. Experience proves that these hopes are wonderfully strong, and they often give birth to the most fatal rashness. Through the violence of the temptation the offender overlooks the punishment, or sees it “in distant obscurity.” Few, who contem-

* It is with regret we find the death of so worthy and intelligent a character announced in recent accounts from America.

plate the commission of a crime, deliberately count the cost.
P. 7.

‘ In no country can the experiment be made with so much safety, and such probability of success, as in the United States. In the old and corrupted governments of Europe, especially in the larger states, a reform in the criminal law has real difficulties to encounter. The multitude of offenders, the unequal state of society, the ignorance, poverty and wretchedness of the lower class of the people, corruption of morals, and habits and manners formed under sanguinary laws, make a sudden relaxation of punishment, in those countries, a dangerous experiment. But in America every thing invites to it: and strangers have expressed their surprise, that we should still retain the severe code of criminal law, which, during our connection with Britain, we copied from her. “ I am surprised, says a late traveller through America, that the penalty of death is not abolished in this country, where morals are so pure, the means of living so abundant, and misery so rare, that there can be no need of such horrid pains to prevent the commission of crimes.” That these punishments ought to be greatly lessened, if not totally abolished, is the opinion of many of the most enlightened men in America: among these I may be allowed to mention the respectable names of Mr. Jefferson, Mr. Wythe, and Mr. Pendleton, of Virginia, who, as a committee of revision, in their report to the general assembly of that state, recommended the abolition of capital punishments in all cases but those of treason and murder: a proposal, which, unfortunately for the interests of humanity, was rejected in the legislature by a single vote.’ P. 12.

The production before us, though not bulky, may be considered as truly important: and we conceive that our readers will be gratified by a larger extract, containing a very interesting ‘ Historical View of the Criminal Law of Pennsylvania.’

‘ It was the policy of Great Britain to keep the laws of the colonies in unison with those of the mother country. This principle extended not only to the regulation of property, but even to the criminal code. The royal charter to William Penn directs, That the laws of Pennsylvania “ respecting felonies, should be the same with those of England, until altered by the acts of the future legislature,” who are enjoined to make these acts “ as near, as conveniently may be, to those of England:” and in order to prevent too great a departure, duplicates of all acts are directed to be transmitted, once in five years, for the royal approbation or dissent.

‘ The natural tendency of this policy was to overwhelm an infant colony, thinly inhabited, with a mass of sanguinary punishments hardly endurable in an old, corrupted and populous country. But the founder of the province was a philosopher, whose
elevated

elevated mind rose above the errors and prejudices of his age, like a mountain, whose summit is enlightened by the first beams of the sun, while the plains are still covered with mists and darkness. He comprehended, at once, all the absurdity of such a system. In an age of religious intolerance he destroyed every restraint upon the rights of conscience, and insured not merely toleration, but absolute protection, to every religion under heaven. He abolished the ancient oppression of forfeitures for self-murder, and deodands in all cases of homicide. He saw the wickedness of exterminating where it was possible to reform; and the folly of capital punishments in a country where he hoped to establish purity of morals and innocence of manners. As a philosopher he wished to extend the empire of reason and humanity; and, as a leader of a sect, he might recollect that the infliction of death, in cold blood, could hardly be justified by those who denied the lawfulness of defensive war. He hastened, therefore, to prevent the operation of the system which the charter imposed; and among the first cares of his administration, was that of forming a small, concise, but complete code of criminal law, fitted to the state of his new settlement: a code which is animated by the pure spirit of philanthropy, and, where we may discover those principles of penal law, the elucidation of which has given so much celebrity to the philosophy of modern times. The punishments prescribed in it were calculated to tie up the hands of the criminal, to reform, to repair the wrongs of the injured party, and to hold up an object of terror sufficient to check a people whose manners he endeavoured to fashion by provisions interwoven in the same system. Robbery, burglary, arson, rape, the crime against nature, forgery, levying war against the governor, conspiring his death, and other crimes, deemed so heinous in many countries, and for which so many thousands have been executed in Britain, were declared to be no longer capital. Different degrees of imprisonment at hard labour, stripes, fines and forfeitures, were the whole compass of punishment inflicted on these offences. Murder, "wilful and premeditated," is the only crime for which the infliction of death is prescribed; and this is declared to be enacted in obedience "to the law of God," as though there had not been any political necessity even for this punishment apparent to the legislature. Yet even here the life of the citizen was guarded by a provision, that no man should be convicted but upon the testimony of two witnesses, and, by an humane practice, early introduced, of staying execution till the record of conviction had been laid before the executive, and full opportunity given to obtain a pardon of the offence or a mitigation of the punishment.

These laws were at first temporary, but being, at length, permanently enacted, they were transmitted to England, and were all, without exception, repealed by the queen in council. The rights of humanity, however, were not tamely given up: the same laws were

were immediately re-enacted, and they continued until the year 1718, and might have remained to this day had not high-handed measures driven our ancestors into an adoption of the sanguinary statutes of the mother country. During this long space of thirty-five years, it does not appear that the mildness of the laws invited offences, or that Pennsylvania was the theatre of more atrocious crimes than the other colonies. The judicial records of that day are lost: but, upon those of the legislative or executive departments and other public papers, no complaint of their inefficacy can be found; or any attempt to punish these crimes with death. On the contrary, as these laws were temporary, the subject was often before the legislature, and they were often re-enacted: which is a decisive proof that they were found adequate to their object.

‘ Under this policy the province flourished: but during the boisterous administration of governor Gookin, a storm was gathering over it, which threatened to sweep away not only this system of laws, but, with it, the privileges of the people. The administration of government, in all its departments, had, from the first settlement of the province, been conducted under the solemnity of an attestation instead of an oath. The laws upon this subject were repealed in England, and, by an order of the queen in council, all officers and witnesses were obliged to take an oath, or, in lieu thereof, the affirmation allowed to Quakers in England by the statute of William III. But the assembly chose to legislate for themselves on this important subject; and this, together with the refusal to adopt the English statutes in other cases, had given offence. The conduct of the assembly, in their disputes with the governor, was misrepresented; suspicions of disaffection were propagated; the declining health of the proprietor left them without an advocate, and his necessities threatened them with a surrender of the government into the hands of the crown.

‘ At this moment the Quakers were alarmed with the prospect of political annihilation. It was said, that the act of 1 George I, which prohibits an affirmation in cases of qualifications to office, or in criminal suits, extended to the colony and superseded the ancient laws. This construction, which was advocated by the governor, and tended to exclude the majority of the settlers from all offices, and even from the protection of the law, threw the whole province into confusion. The governor refused to administer the affirmation as a qualification for office; the judges refused to sit in criminal cases; the administration of justice was suspended, and two atrocious murderers remained in goal three years without trial. The assembly were alarmed, but they resolutely and forcibly asserted the rights of the people: and Gookin was at length recalled.

‘ On the accession of sir William Keith a temporary calm took place: the criminals were convicted under the old forms of proceeding,

ceeding, and executed agreeably to their sentence. A representation and complaint of this was made to the crown; and the assembly were panic struck with the intelligence. They trembled for their privileges—they were weary of the contest which had so long agitated them, and impatient to obtain any regular administration of justice consistent with their fundamental rights.

‘ They had been assured by the governor, that the best way to secure the favor of their sovereign was to copy the laws of the mother country,—“the sum and result of the experience of ages.” The advice was pursued: a resolution to extend such of the British penal statutes, as suited the province, was suddenly entered into. An act for this purpose (containing a provision to secure the right of affirmation to such as conscientiously scrupled an oath) was drawn up by David Lloyd, the chief justice, and, together with a petition to the crown, was passed in a few days.

‘ So anxious were they to conform, that they not only surrendered their ancient system, but left it to the British parliament to legislate for them, in future, upon this subject: and so humbled that they departed, in their petition, from their usual stile, and directed their speaker to solicit the vestry and some members of the church of England to join in a similar address. The sacrifice was accepted, and the privilege of affirmation, so anxiously desired, was confirmed by the royal sanction.

‘ Thus ended this humane experiment in legislation, and the same year, which saw it expire, put a period to the life of its benevolent author.

‘ The royal approbation of this act was triumphantly announced by the governor, and such was the satisfaction of seeing its privileges secured, that the province did not regret the price that it paid.

‘ By this act, which is the basis of our criminal law, the following offences were declared to be capital: high treason (including all those treasons which respect the coin) petit treason, murder, robbery, burglary, rape, sodomy, buggery, malicious maiming, manslaughter by stabbing, witchcraft and conjuration, arson, and every other felony (except larceny) on a second conviction. The statute of James I. respecting bastard children, was extended, in all its rigor, and the courts were authorized to award execution forthwith.

‘ To this list, already too large, were added, at subsequent periods, counterfeiting and uttering counterfeit bills of credit, counterfeiting any current gold or silver coin, and the crime of arson was extended so as to include the burning of certain public buildings. All these crimes, except, perhaps, the impossible one of witchcraft, were capital at the revolution.

‘ We perceive, by this detail, that the severity of our criminal law is an exotic plant, and not the native growth of Pennsylvania.

It has been endured, but, I believe, has never been a favorite. The religious opinions of many of our citizens were in opposition to it: and, as soon as the principles of Beccaria were disseminated, they found a soil that was prepared to receive them. During our connection with Great Britain no reform was attempted: but, as soon as we separated from her, the public sentiment disclosed itself, and this benevolent undertaking was enjoined by the constitution. This was one of the first fruits of liberty, and confirms the remark of Montesquieu, "That, as freedom advances, the severity of the penal law decreases." P. 14.

We have received much pleasure in perusing the whole of this valuable publication:—in a rising community like that of America, there is great room for experiment on the most important part of the legal obligations which are connected with society; it is therefore to be hoped that the wisdom of the governors of the *new world* will improve such solemn opportunities, and that a successful result will infuse the animation of example into most of the governments of Europe.

The Pursuits of Literature, or What you will: a Satirical Poem in Dialogue. Part the First. 4to. 2s. Sewed. Owen. 1794.

THE pen of the satirist is sharp,—his verse spirited and flowing, though neither raised to dignity nor polished into harmony; the objects of his censure are sometimes pointed out by taste and judgment, and not unfrequently by a spirit of party. The notes, which the author twice expresses his desire that the reader will pass over till a *second* perusal of the poem (a demand upon his attention which some may think unreasonable), are various, entertaining, and full of the same keen spirit of criticism, which animates the poetic half of the work. They are indeed so copious, as to rival rather than elucidate the text: and as they show a good deal of various reading, they require not a little to understand them. As a proof of the spirit of party we have mentioned, the reader may observe, that the author takes all due care to show his admiration for Mr. Burke, and his abhorrence for *Proteus Priestley*, as he calls him, and the whole tribe of democratical writers both in England and France, from whom, however, we cannot have much to apprehend, since Mr. Burke, he tells us, 'greater and brighter in the decline than the noonday of his life and vigour, hath stood between the dead and the living, and stayed the plague.' At the elegant, though (it must be confessed) somewhat whimsical, poem of Dr. Darwin, our satirist has a stroke—

‘What?’

‘What?—from the Muse, by cryptogamic stealth,
Must I purloin her native sterling wealth;
Itching for novel subjects, novel dreams,
Rouse great Linnæus from his sober themes;
In filmy, gawzy, gossamery lines,
With lucid language, and most dark designs,
In sweet tetrandryan, monogynian strains
Pant for a pystill in botanic pains;
On the luxurious lap of Flora thrown,
On beds of yielding vegetable down,
Raise lust in pinks; and with unhallow’d fire
Bid the soft virgin violet expire.’ P. 14.

The Royal Society comes in for a dash of his pen: but his chief strength seems to be reserved for the grave black-letter critics of Shakspeare; among whom we cannot help thinking that a certain celebrated lady is mentioned rather unnecessarily and ill-naturedly. We shall, however, give the passage, and with it conclude our notice of the work—

‘On Avon’s banks I heard Actæon * mourn,
By fell BLACK-LETTER DOGS in pieces torn;
Dogs that from Gothic kennels eager start,
All well broke-in by *coney-catching* † art:

Hark,

* * Videre CANES; primusque *Melampus*,
Pamphagus et *Dorceus*, velox cum fratre *Lycisca*,
Ichnobatsque sagax et villis *Asbolus* atris,
Nebrophonosque valens et trux cum *Lælapæ Theron*,
Labros et *Agriodos*, et acutæ vocis *Hylæstor*,
Quosque referre mora est;—ea turba CUPIDINE PRÆDÆ,
Qua via difficilis, *quaque est via nulla*, sequuntur.
Heu famulos fugit IPSE suos: clamare libebat,
ACTÆON *Ego sum*; DOMINUM cognoscite VESTRUM:
Vellet abesse quidem—sed ADEST. Ovid. *Metam.* lib. iii.

* N. B. It is conceived that this *canine* metamorphosis of commentators will be received in a pleasant point of view without offence; for I must speak it to the credit of our English *black-letter* dogs, that upon the whole there is more harmony among them, (a few cases excepted) than among the dogs that worried Greek and Roman authors in former times. I surely may be excused for this *caninity*, if Mr Bryant himself has been allowed to declare, without censure, that *Κυνες* signify *Οι λεπτις*; though certainly the *Hierarchy* are infinitely indebted to him for the discovery. Bryant’s *Mythol.* vol. i. p. 329, &c.

† The singularity of this term (which is the only reason of my introducing it) called for my attention, as no treatises or farces, or whatever they may be, are more appealed to by the commentators than “*Greene’s Art of Coney-catching*; *Greene’s Ground-work of Coney-catching*; *Greene’s Defence of Coney-catching*; *Greene’s Disputation between a He-Coney-catcher and a She-Coney-catcher*.” As my poor library will not afford these valuable books, I profess myself still ignorant of this ancient *art of coney-catching*, and therefore am by no means fit for a commentator; yet the reader may perhaps think me fit for writing a note or two upon these “*SNAPPERS UP OF UNCONSIDERED TRIFLES*.” (*Wint. Tale*, 2. 4. sc. 1.)—I do not agree with Mr. Steevens that *coney-catching* means the art

Hark, JOHNSON * smacks his lash; loud sounds the din:
 Mounted in rear see STEEVENS *whipper-in*,
 Rich with the spoils of learning's black domain,
 And guide supreme o'er all the tainted plain.
 Lo! first *Melampus* † FARMER deftly springs,
 (WALTER-DE-MAPES ‡ his fire) the welkin rings:
 Stout GLOUCESTER § mark in *Pamphagus* § advance,
 Who never stood aghast in speechless trance;
 The sage *Ichnobates* ¶ see TYRWHITT limp;

MA-

of picking pockets; (see his note on the words "Silly Cheat," vol. iv. p. 363, ed. 1778)—except there is any pleasant allusion by anticipation to some late editions of Shakspeare. My poor pockets cannot keep up with these rising demands upon them. SIX POUNDS FIFTEEN SHILLINGS!! for the last edition of Shakspeare, and without any binding! I cry you mercy, my good master Steevens; think of us poor poets.

* The reader must know enough of this *Huntzman*, his green velvet cap, and brown brass-buttoned coat, his churlish chiding of every hound that came near him, &c. &c. at least it's not *Jemmy Boswell's* fault if he does not. This great man's comments on Shakspeare are never sullied and contaminated with minute explications of indecent passages:

“He bears no tokens of those fable streams,
 But counts far off among the swans of Thames.

In whatever Dr. Johnson undertook, it was his determined purpose to rectify the heart, to purify the passions, to give *ardour to virtue and confidence to truth*.

† *Melampus* signifies a dog with black feet. He is supposed to have run over the town and county of *Leicester*, but never could be persuaded to give any account of it.—This dog scented out the *Learning of Shakspeare* with true and original sagacity, and absolutely unkenelled it. This is his proper praise.—Mr. Steevens says, “Could a perfect and decisive edition of Shakspeare be produced, it were to be expected ONLY (though we fear in vain) from the hand of Dr. FARMER, whose more serious avocations forbid Him to undertake what, &c. &c.” See ADVERT. by Mr. Steevens to Shakspeare, edit. 1793, p. 11. Such gravity of compliments between two editors reminds me of what Shakspeare calls, “THE ENCOUNTER OF TWO DOG AMBASSADORS.”

‡ *Walter de Mapes* was the jewel and decoration of Oxford, the Anacreon of the eleventh century, “*A decent priest, where monks were the gods*,” and author of the divine ode, beginning:

“Mihi sit propositum in taberna mori;
 Vinum sit appositum morientis ori,
 Ut dicant, cum venerint, angelorum chori,
 Deus sit propitius huic Potatori,” &c.

§ Stout Gloucester.—Warburton, bishop of Gloucester.

¶ *Pamphagus*—signifies a dog of a most voracious appetite, who snaps at, and devours every thing digestible or indigestible. They who are acquainted with the *Divine Legation*, &c. &c. well know the nature of Warburton's literary appetite and the danger of hunting in the same field with him. With all his eccentricities this was a noble dog, and there is not one of the true breed less worthy of the progenitor, though there are a few mongrels.

¶ *Ichnobates* means a dog who tracks out the game before him. No one was more diligent than this dog, yet he frequently went upon a wrong scent; but would never suffer the huntzman to call him off, especially in the neighbourhood of *Canterbury* and *Bristol*.—If I were again to metamorphose these hounds into men, I should lament the application of Mr. Tyrwhitt's learning and

MALONE *Hylaëtor* ** bounds, a clear-voic'd imp;
 Nor can I pass *Lycisca* MONTAGUE *,
 Her yelp though feeble and her sandals blue;
Aëbolus † HAWKINS, a grim shaggy hound,
 In *Musfic* growls and beats the bushes round ‡;
 Then PORSON view *Nebrophonos* § the shrewd ||,
 Yet foaming with th' archdeacon's ¶ critic blood;

In

sagacity. "Illum pro literato plerique laudandum duxerunt, quum ille nanis quibusdam anilibus occupatus inter *Milesias Punicas* APULEII sui et ludicra literaria consenseret." (Vid. Julium Capitolinum in Vita Clodii Albini ad Constantium Augustum;). I will however say, as to my own part, Illum pro literato laudandum semper duxi, but with a reserve as to the application of his learning. I wish this *Ichnobates* had been *utilium sagax rerum*.

* ** *Hylaëtor* means a dog with a clear and strong voice. One would think that *this dog* was one of Canidia's breech, which called from the sepulchre the actual remains of the dead to enchant and stupefy the living. This dog has been scratching up the earth about *Doctors Commons*, and has torn up all the wills of the actors who lived in Shakspeare's times, and carried them in his mouth to the printer of a late edition of that author.—But when I speak of rational men, it passes the bounds of all sagacity to divine, by what species of refined absurdity the wills and testaments of actors could be raked up and published to *illustrate* Shakspeare. (See Malone's Shakspeare, vol. ii. p. 186, &c. &c. &c. and in the 2d vol. of the edit. of Shakspeare, in 1793.) A critic for such an ingenious invention should be presented with the *altum Sagax callendrum*, which would not easily fall from his head.—But Mr. M. has redeemed this piece of folly by many valuable excellencies.

* See her Essay on Shakspeare, chiefly against the French critics. A very pretty essay, and a great many very pretty things have been said about it, which I shall not contradict. "*Dives agris, dives positis in sanore nummis*," is a verse that has always filled a house with sincere admirers, *without any flattery*.

† *Aëbolus* signifies a dog of a swarthy complexion.

‡ *Beats the bushes round*—Descriptive of Sir John Hawkins's History of Music.

§ *Nebrophonos* signifies a dog that slays the fawns and deer; and so in truth it is:

Archdeacons, rats, and such small deer,
 Have been Dick's food for many a year.

And, as Lear says, "I'll take a word with this same LEARNED THEBAN. My learned master Richard Porson;—but he loves *notitles*! It would be better if he did.

|| *Shrewd*.—Mr. Malone says, the word *shrewd* means *acute*, or *intelligent*; Mr. Steevens says, it is, *bitter* or *severe*. Shak'p. Ed. 1793, vol. vi. p. 430. Reader, you may chuse, or rather combine the terms.

¶ The reader may be surprised to find any theological writings in this part; but Mr. Steevens's ingenuity has contrived to press Mr. Porson's letters to Mr. archdeacon Travis into the service of Shakspeare; and by such ingenuity *who* or *what* may not be pressed into it? This is quite a sufficient excuse for me, or rather a full justification of my allusion to them. See *Tempest*, vol. iii. p. 68. Steev. edit. 1793. Mr. Steevens files Mr. P. "*an excellent scholar and a perspicacious critic*;" in which I most cordially agree. But, if I am rightly informed, he thanks neither Mr. Steevens, nor me, nor Dr. Parr, nor Dr. Burney the schoolmaster, nor any other doctor or mister in this country, for any opinion they may entertain or express of him or his works. He neither gives nor takes. "*Walker, our bat*."—But there is a something, as I have learned from H. race of great men, "*quod lenis tormentum ingenio admovet plerumque duro*."—I find the archdeacon has re-published his work, and in my opinion has very wisely declined being led any more by Dick and the *foul-fiend* "through fire,
 and

In *Theron's* * form mark RITSON next contend,
Fierce, meagre, pale, no commentator's † friend ;
Tom WARTON last *Agriodos* ‡ acute,
With *Labros* PERCY § barks in close pursuit :
Hot was the chace ; I left it out of breath ;
I wish'd not to be in at SHAKSPEARE's death.' P. 34.

The Psalms of David. A new and improved Version. 8vo.
5s. Boards. Priestley. 1794.

THE late king of Sweden, aware of the errors and imperfections which abounded in the various versions of the Bible, and particularly in that of his own country, formed a design of procuring a new one, to be published under his own authority and sanction. The plan was communicated to those

and through flame and whirlpool, o'er bog and quagmire, and having knives laid under his pillow, &c." But the archdeacon has had the weakness to print his work on a *wire-weave paper* and *bot-pressed*. Had I been the archdeacon, I should have been contented with the *bot-pressing* by Mr. Porson—hot indeed, *bisping-bot* !—This controversy has no good end : learning is good, and theology is good ; but there is something better, Η ΑΓΑΠΗ. There is also a writer who says, *καταναυχᾶται* ΕΛΕΟΣ *πρωτας*. Is it not so, Mr. Professor?

* *Theron* signifies a dog of innate ferocity.

† Poor Tom Warton could have told a piteous tale, how *his* historic body was punched full of deadly holes by this literary Richard III. — Dr. Percy could make a lamentation or two in some ancient ditty in a *fit* or canto. Mr. Malone probably has felt a gripe rather strong. The Antiquarians—but they have *spoken for themselves*. The Antiquarian Society is amiable and harmless, and from what I have seen, their publications resemble the subjects of them, ΝΕΝΟΥΝ ΑΜΕΝΗΝΑ *ναεννα*. Who could wish to disturb such repose?

‡ *Agriodos* signifies a dog with a sharp tooth.—I always regret the loss of Thomas Warton : in his various writings he is amusing, instructive, pleasant, learned, and poetical.—Tom Warton had rather a kindly affection for the jovial memory of archdeacon Walter de Mapes of the eleventh century, mentioned for his drinking ode in a former note. Mr. W. tells us, (with a warm panegyric) in his 2d Dissert. to the Hist. of E. P. that this divine Anacreon wrote also a Latin ode in favour of married priests, concluding with these *spirited* lines :

‘ Ecce pro Clericis multum allegavi ;
Nec non pro Presbyteris multum comprobavi ;
Pater noster pro me quoniam peccavi,
Dicat quisque Presbyter cum sua SUAVI !

‘ I quote this for my own sake, *quoniam peccavi*, and am inclined to hope that every Presbyter cum sua SUAVI, will be as kind to the author of this poem on THE PURSUITS OF LITERATURE. Requiescat !

§ *Labros* signifies a dog that opens continually.—But I forget—Si quis dixerit EPISCOPUM aliquā infirmitate laborare, anathema esto.—AND thus I take my leave of the WHOLE black-letter KENNEL, with all their wit, and all their follies, and all their merry humours ; and they may both now and hereafter, unawed by their great Huntsman who is no more, and most probably unmolested by me, continue to bark and growl, and snap, and quarrel, and tease one another, till there remains not a critical ossal for which they may contend. *Es velut absentem certatim ACTEONA clament.*

persons in his dominions, best qualified to give it effect, and amongst the rest to John Adam Tingstadius, D. D. and professor of the oriental languages in the university of Upsal, than whom few could be found more competent to the work. Of this he had given proofs to his countrymen in a version of the Proverbs, in the year 1774, and above five years since in that of the Psalms, from which this before us is taken. The plan upon which he proceeded, is thus detailed in his Preface—

‘ In humble obedience to the royal instructions issued out, for the commission for translating the Bible, in the year 1772, I made it a point, first, to establish the true reading of the original text ;—secondly, to express in their pure and unadulterated meaning, the contents and true sense of the words of the text by Swedish phrases of similar import ;—thirdly, when such words and phrases occurred, as had several significations, to find out the true one for each passage ;—fourthly, whenever any peculiar modes of expression or idioms presented themselves, the literal translation of which might bring with it any singularity or inexplicable obscurity, to express such passages with other words, so plainly and briefly, that the energy and force of the scripture-language might not be lost ;—fifthly, with respect to such words in the original as relate to eastern antiquities, manners, or customs, to translate them in fact literally, but at the same time to explain them by note ;—and sixthly, as much as was possible, and in as far as it could be reconciled to the genuine sense of the original, to retain the old Swedish translation.

‘ With all this he tells us, that “ he did not neglect to compare with the original not only the most ancient versions of the Bible made in various eastern languages, but also the interpretations of scripture and other philological performances of similar import, that have appeared in more modern times, in different nations in Europe.” P. iv.

It is observed by the English translator that—

‘ If, as in many instances, no doubt they will, the Psalms of David, in their present garb, should appear to differ essentially from what we have hitherto been taught to consider as the real sentiments of the royal psalmist, it is presumed that the alledged difference will not only have the advantage of sense and sound reason on its side, but be likewise found to correspond more faithfully with the original text. And we have the learned professor’s own authority for informing the public, that the philological arguments upon which he grounds this difference in his version, will very shortly appear in print for the behoof of those readers, who wish to judge for themselves, and to compare the version with the original ’ P. v.

If it be inseparable from the very nature of translation, that some characteristics of the original must be lost or impaired, in a double translation the evil will increase; the work therefore before us must appear to considerable disadvantage. Notwithstanding this, however, it will be found of considerable use to those who cannot read the version in the Swedish; for, besides many excellent turns which illustrate the sense, the notes abound with judicious remarks.

That our readers may be enabled to judge, the following specimen is inserted—

‘ PSALM LXVIII.

On occasion of the removal of the Ark of the covenant to Zion, with solemn procession and music, of which mention is made in II. Sam. chap. vi. ver. 12 and 19. and I. Chron. chap. xv. ver. 25. and 29. They sang the special protection, afforded by the Almighty to his people, his power and his glory.

‘ A festal Psalm of David, to be performed with Music.

‘ 1. Let God arise *!

Let his enemies be scattered!

May those that hate him

flee before his face!

‘ 2. As smoke is driven away,

so may they be driven!

As wax melteth before the fire,

so perish the evil doers

before the face of God!

‘ 3. But let the righteous be glad,

and rejoice before him,

and celebrate their solemn festivals!

CHORUS.

‘ 4. Sing unto God †!

Sing the praise of his name!

Prepare the way before him,

who rideth over the spaces ‡ of the deserts;

whose name is Eternal.

‘ 5. Rejoice before him;

of the fatherless a father;

of the widows an avenger;

a God,

whose habitation is holy;

‘ * Here the ark is lifted up to be borne by the priests. The song begins with the same ceremonies as were customary in ancient times, when the ark was carried before the host of the Israelites, during their march through the wilderness. Vid. Numb. chap. x. ver. 35.

‘ † Here it seems, the procession was ushered in by the music of the instruments, mentioned in I. Chron. chap. xv.

‘ ‡ By this, the poet seems to imply the same immeasurable spaces of heaven, which the Most High is said to ride over, in verse 35.

‘ 6. A God,

who giveth harbour to the houseless :
who leadeth the oppressed prisoner out into rich fields ;
but letteth the workers of violence alone
inhabit the barren rock.

‘ 7. When thou didst lead forth thy people *,
O God !

when thou didst march majestically
through the wilderness,

‘ 8. The earth shook :
the heavens melted
before the Omnipotent :
Even Sinai itself
before God,
the God of Israel.

‘ 9. A mild rain didst thou let fall,
O God !
and refreshedst the soil of thy inheritance †
that languishing land ;

‘ 10. So that thy dependants ‡
could inhabit it.
With thy bounty
didst thou refresh an oppressed people,
O God !

‘ 11. A joyful message did the Lord send :
great multitudes of female messengers §.

‘ 12. Kings with their hosts
flee hither, flee thither ;
and the housewife divideth the spoil ||.

‘ 13. Repose not yourselves peaceably beside your tent-stones ¶,
under the shadow of dove’s wings,

* * The poet calls to mind, how the Almighty led forth his people in former times ; first during their wandering in the wilderness, ver. 8.—11. and secondly, when they made the conquest of the promised land, ver. 12—15.

† The *Desart of Sinai*, in Exod. chap. iii. ver. 5. called a *holy land*, is here represented as the soil or glebe of God’s inheritance, on account of Mount Sinai being considered as his ostensible residence, before he established his dwelling among the Israelites, either in the tabernacle or temple.

‡ Viz. *The Israelites*. The expression is meant to denote God’s providential care of his people in the wilderness, and deserves to be collated with Isaiah, chap. xliii. ver. 19—20.

§ Viz. Such, as like Mirjam and her companions, vid. Exod. chap. xv. ver. 20. and seqq. sang the victories of Israel. The poet introduces their song at ver. 13—15.

|| The victorious soldier brings the spoils of war home to his wife.

¶ Compare with this, Numb. chap. xxxii. ver. 6. *To sit beside one’s tent-stones*, signifies in the Hebrew language, the same as *to sit at home at one’s fire-side* : because the eastern nomadic nations are accustomed to set the pots they used for dressing their victuals, upon three elevated stones.

covered over with silver :
glittering with gold *.

‘ 14. When the Almighty destroyeth the kings of the land †,
Joy is diffused over Zalmon ‡.

‘ 15. A mountain of God §
is mount Basan :
a mountain with high ridges
is mount Basan.

‘ 16. Wherefore envy ye,
O ye high mountains !
this mountain,
which the Lord has chosen for his residence ?
To all eternity
there however the Eternal shall dwell.

‘ 17. God is accompanied by innumerable hosts ¶
of thousands of thousands.
In the midst of them appeareth the Lord,
as formerly upon Sinai,
holy, majestic.

‘ 18. Thou ascendest on high ¶ :
for thy spoil takest captives ;
as a present men ** :
violent oppressors ;
that here †† thou mayest dwell
Eternal God !

CHORUS.

‘ 19. From day to day, the Lord be praised !

* Figures descriptive of the *calm tranquillity of peace.*

† It has happened not once, but many times that the combined heathen kings have been dispersed, and devoted to destruction in this manner. Vid. Numb. chap. xxxi. Josh. chap. ix. and x. &c.

‡ Zalmon, a mountain belonging to the tribe of Ephraim, is beyond a doubt made use of here, agreeable to poetic licence, as a *pars pro toto*, to signify the whole country.

§ An exceeding large and considerable mountain. The scene is now changed. The sight of the mountainous heights of Jerusalem, occasions the poet to feign a competition between the mountains of Palestine, for the honour of being fixed upon as the residence of the ark of the covenant.

¶ The numerous suite that followed the ark of the covenant, appears, in the ideas of the poet, to afford an image of the innumerable hosts of angels, with which the Most High was supposed to be encompassed, in a manner somewhat similar to that of an eastern monarch, whose majesty was denoted by the numerous retinue that accompanied him.

¶ Viz. Upon Mount Zion. Compare Psal. xlvii. ver. 6.

** The poet alludes to the victories, which the Most High caused the Israelites to obtain under his immediate auspices, as their leader, over the ancient inhabitants of Canaan and Zion. This passage is grounded upon the oriental custom of making the monarch a present of some of the conquered enemies for slaves.

†† Among thy people, upon Mount Zion.

Doth any burthen oppress us ;
The Most High is our relief.

‘ 20. Our God is the God,
that giveth victory :

The Lord, the Eternal,
who delivereth from death :

‘ 21. A God,
that crusheth the head of his enemies ;
the crown of the head of those,
who persevere in their transgressions.

‘ 22. From the mount of Basan *,
I will fetch them back again,
saith the Lord :

Quite from the depth of the sea,
I will bring them back.

‘ 23. So that thy foot shall wade in blood :
and the tongues of thy dogs
enjoy their share of the enemies †.

‘ 24. We behold thy entrance, O God,
my King’s entrance into his sanctuary.

‘ 25. The singers go before ;
the players upon stringed instruments follow after,
surrounded on both sides by virgins,
who beat the kettle-drums ;

‘ 26. In full chorus praising God.
The tribes, that are descended from Israel,
praise the Lord.

‘ 27. There Benjamin,
the youngest among them,
and yet their leader :

Here the princes of Judah,
clad in purple ;

The princes of Sebulon :

The princes of Naphtali.

‘ 28. Support, O God, thy power :
Confirm what thou hast done with us.

‘ 29. To thy temple in Jerusalem,
kings shall bring presents unto thee !

‘ 30. Subdue the wild beasts
that lie in the reeds ‡ :
a powerful body of heroes,
committing violence among a weaker people :

* * The highest, inaccessible mountain.

† † Common images, with the ancient poets, to denote a total overthrow.

‡ ‡ A poetic description of the inhabitants of Egypt. Compare with this,
Psalm, lxxiv. ver. 14.

him who treadeth upon a floor of silver *.

Scatter the hosts that delight in war.

' 31. May the Hasmanians be gathered together from Egypt,
may the Ethiopians † hasten,
to lift up their hands to God!

FIRST CHORUS.

' 32. Sing to God,

Ye ruling powers of the earth !

Consecrate songs of praise to the Almighty !

' 33. To him, who rideth on the highest heavens
which were of old his ancient abode,

Mark, how he letteth his voice ‡,
his Almighty voice be heard !

' 34. Give glory to God !

Who manifesteth his excellency over Israel :
his power in the clouds.

SECOND CHORUS.

' 35. Terrible dost thou shew thyself, O God,
out of thy holy dwellings §.

The God of Israel is he,
who bestoweth victory and strength
on his people.

Praised be God !' P. 154.

*The Life of Lorenzo de' Medici, called the Magnificent. By
William Roscoe. 2 Vols. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards.
Cadell and Davies. 1796.*

Independently of the abilities of the author, two predisposing circumstances are necessary to spread over an historical narration a lively degree of interest. It is necessary that the subject of it should be so far known, as already to fill some space in the public eye ; and also, that the information which general readers are in possession of concerning it, should be of that vague and imperfect kind, which rather serves to stimulate than to satisfy curiosity. Precisely in this predicament is the period which Mr. Roscoe has undertaken to illustrate. All who read, have read of the times of the Medici,

* This seems to be a strongly marked characteristic of a certain haughty overbearing power, among the heathen nations, long since consigned to utter oblivion.

† The Hasmanians and Ethiopians are here poetically substituted for the remote heathen nations in general.

‡ Thunder.

§ From heaven—from Sinai—from Zion, in the voice, which thou causest to go forth.

as of the brilliant and flourishing æra of the country to which they belonged, and connect with their names the revival and diffusion of literature. But notwithstanding this general impression, the particulars of their lives, and characteristic features of their minds,—and what is still of more importance, the history of letters, and the mental process which was bringing to maturity so many fair fruits of science and of art,—in this country at least, has been very little the object of research. Italian literature is accessible to comparatively but few; and of those who read the language, the greater part satisfy themselves with a few of the more common classics, and are content to remain ignorant of many a brilliant production, and many an eager contest, which charmed or divided the wits and scholars of a former age.

Mr. Roscoe does not, however, embrace so large an object as the complete history of the revival of literature: but, finding (to use his own words) ‘that every thing great and estimable in science and in art, revolved round *Lorenzo de' Medici*, during the short but splendid era of his life, as a common centre, and derived from him its invariable preservation and support,’—he has chosen this individual of that illustrious family, for the labours of his pen, more particularly as Lorenzo, ‘though admired and venerated by his cotemporaries, has been defrauded of his just fame by posterity,’ who have turned their eyes almost exclusively upon his second son Leo the Tenth, who undoubtedly promoted the views, but never in any degree rivaled the talents of his father.

The sources from whence Mr. Roscoe has drawn, are accurately pointed out in the prefatory account of the work; and we have the pleasure to see, that the taste and talents which every one who knows Mr. Roscoe, knows him to be in possession of, have been assisted not only by the histories of *Va'ori* and *Bruni*, *Machiavelli* and *Ammirato*, the critical labours of *Crescimbeni*, *Muratori*, *Bandini*, and *Tiraboschi*, but with original documents procured for him from the Laurentian and Ricardo libraries. Particularly, he has had the good fortune to obtain copies of several beautiful poems of Lorenzo's, which were not even known to be in being by his former biographers. Many of these are here given, and will claim our notice in the course of the work.

The life of Lorenzo himself is preceded by what may be called a finished sketch of the life of Cosmo, the grandfather of Lorenzo, and the second of his family who enjoyed the chief power in the commonwealth, by the peculiar and honourable title of a popularity acquired by the benefits bestowed on his fellow citizens. Of these benefits, the most important were the encouragement of learning and learned men,

men, to which Cosmo devoted a very large share of his fortune.—The attention to Greek literature, some attempts to cultivate which had been made in the life of Boccacio, but which had afterwards received a check, was now reviving with an ardour which partook of the eagerness of passion; several learned Greeks, driven from Constantinople by the dread or by the arms of the Turks, spread through the Italian states their language and their philosophy; and, above all, libraries began to be collected, and the most diligent research made for those precious remains of antiquity, in which, like fire in covered embers, science was kept from perishing, though buried under heaps of dirt and rubbish. The lover of the classics will follow, with a kind of filial veneration, the zealous efforts of Filelfo, Aurispa, Poggio, and others, to recover these precious treasures; he will tremble to think how near some of them were to perishing by neglect; he will sympathise in the feelings of Guarino Veronese, who, returning from Constantinople with a rich cargo of manuscripts, lost them by shipwreck, with which disappointment his hair turned suddenly white;—and he will almost wish, at the expense of the familiarity and facility the objects of study now present to him, to have lived in those times, when he might have shared the exultation of discovering, from time to time, a new classic, and felt the powerful spring which such an accession of fresh ideas must have given to every faculty of the human mind. Of all who exerted themselves on this occasion, Poggio was the most successful. While he attended the council of Constance, he visited the convent of San Gallo, where he found a complete copy of Quintilian.

‘ At the same time he found the three first books, and part of the fourth, of the *Argonautics* of Valerius Flaccus. Some idea may be formed of the critical state of these works from the account that Poggio has left. Buried in the obscurity of a dark and lonely tower, covered with filth and rubbish, their destruction seemed inevitable. Of this fortunate discovery he gave immediate notice to his friend Leonardo Aretino, who, by representing to him the importance and utility of his labours, stimulated him to fresh exertions. The letter addressed by Leonardo to Poggio on this occasion is full of the highest commendations, and the most extravagant expressions of joy. By his subsequent researches through France and Germany, Poggio also recovered several of the orations of Cicero. At that time only eight of the comedies of Plautus were known. The first complete copy of that author was brought to Rome, at the instance of Poggio, by Nicholas of Treves, a German monk, from whom it was purchased by the cardinal Giordano Orsini, who was afterwards with great difficulty prevailed upon to suffer Poggio and

and his friends to copy it; and even this favour would not have been granted without the warm interference of Lorenzo, the brother of Cosmo de' Medici. The monk had flattered the Italian scholars that he also possessed a copy of the work of Aulus Gellius, and of the first book of Quintus Curtius; but in this they were disappointed. From a Latin elegy by Christoforo Landino on the death of Poggio, we are fully authorized to conclude that he also first discovered the beautiful and philosophic poem of Lucretius, that of Silius Italicus, and the valuable work of Columella; and from a memorial yet existing in the hand writing of Angelo Politiano, it appears that the poems of Statius were brought into Italy by the same indefatigable investigator. In the opinion of Politiano these poems were indeed inaccurate and defective, yet all the copies which he had seen were derived from this manuscript.

‘Poggio had once formed the fullest expectations of obtaining a copy of the Decades of Livy, which a monk had assured him he had seen in the Cistercian monastery of Sora, comprized in two volumes in large Lombard characters. He immediately wrote to a friend at Florence, requesting him to prevail on Cosmo de' Medici to direct his agent in that neighbourhood to repair to the monastery, and to purchase the work. Some time afterwards Poggio addressed himself to Leonello d'Este, marquis of Ferrara, on the same subject, but apparently without any great hopes of success. His attempts to recover the writings of Tacitus, were equally fruitless. After long inquiry, he was convinced that no copy of that author existed in Germany; yet at the distance of nearly a century, the five books of his history were brought from thence to Rome, and presented to Leo X. In prosecution of his favourite object, Poggio extended his researches into England, where he resided some time with the cardinal bishop of Winchester; and from whence he transmitted to Italy the Bucolics of Calphurnius, and a part of the works of Petronius.’ Vol. i. p. 26.

Aurispia arrived at Venice from Constantinople

‘In the year 1423, with two hundred and thirty-eight manuscripts, amongst which were all the works of Plato, of Proclus, of Plotinus, of Lucian, of Xenophon, the histories of Arrian, of Dio, and of Diodorus Siculus, the geography of Strabo, the poems of Callimachus, of Pindar, of Oppian, and those attributed to Orpheus.’ Vol. i. p. 30.

From these treasures,—to possess himself of which, Cosmo spared neither pains nor expense, arose the celebrated library of the Medici,—which was, after his death, further enriched by his descendants, and particularly by his grandson Lorenzo, and is known to the present times under the name of the *Bibliotheca Mediceo-Laurentiana*. Cosmo likewise founded the library of St. Mark, in the arrangement of which he was assisted

assisted by a poor scholar, Tomaso, who afterwards, under the name of Nicholas V. became the founder of the Vatican. The life of Cosmo derived celebrity from the dawn of the arts, as well as from the revival of letters. Brunelleschi, Donatelli, and Ghiberti, were destined to please an age, upon which a Raphael and a Michael Angelo had not yet risen.

At the death of Cosmo in 1464, Lorenzo, the subject of this history, was sixteen, and had at that time given indications of extraordinary talents; and though in the authority which was now become in a manner hereditary in his family, he was preceded by his father; yet the infirmities of Piero gave occasion for his early introduction upon the stage of public business. It is impossible, perhaps, to conceive a more favourable position for the cultivation of the mental powers, than that in which Lorenzo stood. The wealth of the Medici, and their patronage of genius and learned men, secured him the best assistance in his studies, and early access to all the precious monuments of art which were then extant; and yet, as the authority of his family rested on the basis of popularity, and was not yet encumbered with the ceremonious observances and servile forms of acknowledged despotism, there was nothing to prevent that free intercourse with his fellow-citizens, which is necessary to form the accomplished and manly character.—Lorenzo had the advantage of the instructions of *Christoforo Landino*, *Argyropylus*, and *Marfilio Ficino*. With Ficino, by whom he was sedulously instructed in the doctrines of Platonism, he maintained through life an unalterable friendship.

The talents of Lorenzo are represented by Mr. Roscoe to be 'so versatile, that it is difficult to discover any department of business or of amusement, of art or of science, to which they were not at some time applied;'—and again he says, 'so various, yet so extensive were his powers, that they are scarcely reconcileable to that consistency of character, with which the laws of human nature seldom dispense.'

Without stopping at present to inquire whether the biographer is not somewhat influenced in this very comprehensive eulogium, by the (perhaps laudable) partiality which is generally felt by an ardent mind for the character he has employed himself in delineating,—we shall readily acknowledge that Lorenzo exhibited an equal genius for politics and for literature, and that he well deserved, by his liberal patronage and splendid establishments, the title of *magnificent*, by which he has been distinguished. In the conspiracy of Luca Pitti, which took place while he was yet a youth, his presence of mind was the means of saving the life of his father. Previous to that event, he had travelled to Naples and other states of Italy,

Italy, and made himself master of the politics of the different courts. This was the rather necessary, as intrigue, much more than arms, decided the contests of the small Italian states. Their bloodless battles were fought, as Machiavelli assures us, from noon till evening, without the loss of a single man; and though, as Mr. Roscoe observes, this account cannot be supposed to be literally true,—yet from the manner in which the threatening storm, raised by the banished partisans of the Pitti faction, was blown over, we may conjecture that address, and probably interest, were more powerful agents than military valour. Indeed Piero would have been ruined with the Florentines, if he had not in time recalled a false step he made in beginning to call in his money from the citizens.

After peace was restored, a splendid tournament was held, which gave occasion to two of the most noted poems of the fifteenth century, the *Giostra* of Lorenzo de' Medici, by *Luca Pulci*, brother to Luigi Pulci who wrote the *Morgante*, and the *Giostra* of Guiliamo de' Medici, by *Angelo Politiano*; the last celebrated author was only then fourteen. Of these poems some specimens are given, with elegant translations. About this time Landino published his *Disputationes Camaldulenses*, a work of the nature of the *Tusculan Questions*, in which the two brothers of the Medici are introduced as speakers. Lorenzo himself was early a poet; and the mention of some of his sonnets is preceded by an account, rather too solemn for the occasion, of his early love, which seems to have been the offspring of a poetical fancy, rather than his poetry the offspring of his passion.

In the year 1469 Piero died, and Lorenzo succeeded to the acknowledged direction of the republic.—‘On the second day, he says, after that event, he was attended at his own house by many of the principal inhabitants of Florence, who requested he would take upon himself the administration and care of the republic, in the same manner as his grandfather and father had before done.’—We are not told the precise manner in which the authority of one man was made to agree with the forms of the republic; but it was probably effected by the Medici either holding themselves, or filling with their adherents, the chief offices of the state. In short, Lorenzo stood on the same ground at Florence, as Pericles had done at Athens. Of this the chief cause was, no doubt, the immense wealth of the family:—this was derived from commerce, particularly in eastern merchandise by Alexandria,—from farms and wines, and particularly from banks established in almost all the trading cities of Europe. Nor was the munificent employment of their riches less to be admired. Lorenzo computes

computes that his ancestors had expended, in works of public charity or utility, 663,755 florins, since the return of Cosmo from banishment,—and adds, that he thought it well laid out. He himself laid out vast sums in buildings, collections of antiques, libraries, and the most generous patronage of literary men. He established a school of painting and sculpture, where Michael Angelo exhibited his first productions. In public shows, festivals, and literary prizes, he emulated the magnificence of ancient Rome. But one of the chief features of his private life was the cultivation of the Platonic philosophy. And let it not seem incredible to those acquainted only with the manners of the present day, that, amidst the luxuries of wealth and the intrigues of policy, the lofty doctrines of Platonism should be studied with as much eagerness as in a cloister.—Ficino, the great champion of the sect, had been the tutor of Lorenzo; and the Platonic academy, which had its beginning in the life of Cosmo, now flourished with additional splendour under the auspices of Lorenzo. After giving an account of a philosophical poem of Lorenzo, in which he gives a sketch of the doctrines of Plato, the author adds—

‘ In order to give additional stability to these studies, Lorenzo and his friends formed the intention of renewing, with extraordinary pomp, the solemn annual feasts to the memory of the great philosopher, which had been celebrated from the time of his death to that of his disciples Plotinus and Porphyrius, but had then been discontinued for the space of twelve hundred years. The day fixed on for this purpose was the seventh of November, which was supposed to be the anniversary not only of the birth of Plato, but of his death, which happened among his friends at a convivial banquet, precisely at the close of his eighty-first year. The person appointed by Lorenzo to preside over the ceremony at Florence was Francesco Bandini, whose rank and learning rendered him extremely proper for the office. On the same day another party met at Lorenzo’s villa at Carreggi, where he presided in person. At these meetings, to which the most learned men in Italy resorted, it was the custom for one of the party, after dinner, to select certain passages from the works of Plato, which were submitted to the elucidation of the company, each of the guests undertaking the illustration or discussion of some important or doubtful point. By this institution, which was continued for several years, the philosophy of Plato was supported not only in credit but in splendor, and its professors were considered as the most respectable and enlightened men of the age. Whatever Lorenzo thought proper to patronize, became the admiration of Florence, and consequently of all Italy. He was the *glass of fashion*, and those who joined in his pursuits, or imitated his example, could not fail of sharing in that applause which

which seemed to attend on every action of his life.' Vol. i. p. 167.

It would be curious, had we sufficient documents for it, to trace the influence of the Platonic doctrines on the systems of the day, and particularly to discover what sort of compromise or of alliance they formed with the religious creeds which were professed by the literary circle. The Christian piety, of Lorenzo at least, seems to have been equally conspicuous with his Platonism.—Of all the scholars whom he patronised, Politian was most in the favour of Lorenzo. He made him tutor of his children: and though, from the continual bickerings between him and Clarice, the wife of Lorenzo (for these scholars did not always exhibit the most amiable manners) he was obliged to withdraw him from that office, the most affectionate attachment subsisted between them to the death of Lorenzo.

The most striking political event in the life of Lorenzo is the conspiracy of the Pazzi, of which an interesting account is given in the fourth chapter of this work—

‘A transaction in which a pope, a cardinal, an archbishop, and several other ecclesiastics, associated themselves with a band of ruffians, to destroy two men who were an honour to their age and country; and purposed to perpetrate their crime at a season of hospitality, in the sanctuary of a Christian church, and at the very moment of the elevation of the host, when the audience bowed down before it, and the assassins were presumed to be in the immediate presence of their God.’ Vol. i. p. 176.

We cannot resist the temptation of transcribing the following particulars—

‘The immediate assassination of Giuliano was committed to Francesco de’ Pazzi and Bernardo Bandini, and that of Lorenzo had been intrusted to the sole hand of Monteficco. This office he had willingly undertaken whilst he understood that it was to be executed in a private dwelling, but he shrunk from the idea of polluting the house of God with so heinous a crime. Two ecclesiastics were therefore selected for the commission of a deed, from which the soldier was deterred by conscientious motives. These were Stefano da Bagnone, the apostolic scribe, and Antonio Maffei.

‘The young cardinal having expressed a desire to attend divine service in the church of the Reparata, on the ensuing Sunday, being the twenty-sixth day of April 1478, Lorenzo invited him and his suite to his house in Florence. He accordingly came with a large retinue, supporting the united characters of cardinal and apostolic legate, and was received by Lorenzo with that splendor and hospitality with which he was always accustomed to entertain

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men of high rank and consequence. Giuliano did not appear, a circumstance that alarmed the conspirators, whose arrangements would not admit of longer delay. They soon however learnt that he intended to be present at the church.—The service was already begun, and the cardinal had taken his seat, when Francesco de' Pazzi and Bandini, observing that Giuliano was not yet arrived, left the church and went to his house, in order to insure and hasten his attendance. Giuliano accompanied them, and as he walked between them, they threw their arms round him with the familiarity of intimate friends, but in fact to discover whether he had any armour under his dress; possibly conjecturing from his long delay, that he had suspected their purpose. At the same time by their freedom and jocularly, they endeavoured to obviate any apprehensions which he might entertain from such a proceeding. The conspirators having taken their stations near their intended victims, waited with impatience for the appointed signal. The bell rang—the priest raised the consecrated wafer—the people bowed before it—and at the same instant Bandini plunged a short dagger into the breast of Giuliano.—On receiving the wound he took a few hasty steps and fell, when Francesco de' Pazzi rushed upon him with incredible fury, and stabbed him in different parts of his body, continuing to repeat his strokes even after he was apparently dead. Such was the violence of his rage, that he wounded himself deeply in the thigh. The priests who had undertaken the murder of Lorenzo were not equally successful. An ill-directed blow from Maffei, which was aimed at the throat, but took place behind the neck, rather roused him to his defence than disabled him. He immediately threw off his cloak, and holding it up as a shield in his left hand, with his right he drew his sword, and repelled his assailants. Perceiving that their purpose was defeated, the two ecclesiastics, after having wounded one of Lorenzo's attendants who had interposed to defend him, endeavoured to save themselves by flight. At the same moment Bandini, his dagger streaming with the blood of Giuliano, rushed towards Lorenzo; but meeting in his way with Francesco Nori, a person in the service of the Medici, and in whom they placed great confidence, he stabbed him with a wound instantaneously mortal. At the approach of Bandini, the friends of Lorenzo encircled him, and hurried him into the sacristy, where Politiano and others closed the doors, which were of brass. Apprehensions being entertained that the weapon which had wounded him was poisoned, a young man attached to Lorenzo sucked the wound. A general alarm and consternation took place in the church; and such was the tumult which ensued, that it was at first believed by the audience that the building was falling in; but no sooner was it understood that Lorenzo was in danger, than several of the youth of Florence formed themselves into a body, and receiving him into the midst of them, conducted him to his house, making

ing a circuitous turn from the church, lest he should meet with the dead body of his brother.

Whilst these transactions passed in the church, another commotion took place in the palace; where the archbishop, who had left the church, as agreed upon before the attack on the Medici, and about thirty of his associates, attempted to overpower the magistrates, and to possess themselves of the seat of government. Leaving some of his followers stationed in different apartments, the archbishop proceeded to an interior chamber, where Cesare Petrucci, then gonfaloniere, and the other magistrates were assembled. No sooner was the gonfaloniere informed of his approach, than out of respect to his rank he rose to meet him. Whether the archbishop was disconcerted by the presence of Petrucci, who was known to be of a resolute character, of which he had given a striking instance in frustrating the attack of Bernardo Nardi upon the town of Prato, or whether his courage was not equal to the undertaking, is uncertain; but instead of intimidating the magistrates by a sudden attack, he began to inform Petrucci that the pope had bestowed an employment on his son, of which he had to deliver to him the credentials. This he did with such hesitation, and in so desultory a manner, that it was scarcely possible to connect his meaning. Petrucci also observed that he frequently changed colour, and at times turned towards the door, as if giving a signal to some one to approach.—Alarmed at his manner, and probably aware of his character, Petrucci suddenly rushed out of the chamber, and called together the guards and attendants. By attempting to retreat, the archbishop confessed his guilt. In pursuing him, Petrucci met with Giacomo Poggio, whom he caught by the hair, and throwing him on the ground, delivered into the custody of his followers. The rest of the magistrates and their attendants seized upon such arms as the place supplied, and the implements of the kitchen became formidable weapons in their hands. Having secured the doors of the palace, they furiously attacked their scattered and intimidated enemies, who no longer attempted resistance. During this commotion they were alarmed by a tumult from without, and perceived from the windows Giacomo de' Pazzi, followed by about one hundred soldiers, crying out liberty, and exhorting the people to revolt. At the same time they found that the insurgents had forced the gates of the palace, and that some of them were entering to defend their companions. The magistrates however persevered in their defence, and repulsing their enemies, secured the gates till a reinforcement of their friends came to their assistance. Petrucci was now first informed of the assassination of Giuliano, and the attack made upon Lorenzo. The relation of this treachery excited his highest indignation. With the concurrence of the state counsellors, he ordered Giacomo Poggio to be hung in sight of the populace, out of the palace windows, and secured

cured the archbishop, with his brother and the other chiefs of the conspiracy. Their followers were either slaughtered in the palace, or thrown half alive through the windows. One only of the whole number escaped. He was found some days afterwards concealed in the wainscots, perishing with hunger, and in consideration of his sufferings received his pardon.

‘ The young cardinal Riario, who had taken refuge at the altar, was preserved from the rage of the populace by the interference of Lorenzo, who appeared to give credit to his asseverations, that he was ignorant of the intentions of the conspirators. It is said that his fears had so violent an effect upon him, that he never afterwards recovered his natural complexion. His attendants fell a sacrifice to the resentment of the citizens. The streets were polluted with the dead bodies and mangled limbs of the slaughtered. With the head of one of these unfortunate wretches on a lance the populace paraded the city, which resounded with the cry of *palle, palle, perish the traitors!* Francesco de’ Pazzi being found at the house of his uncle Giacompo, where on account of his wound he was confined to his bed, was dragged out naked and exhausted by loss of blood, and being brought to the palace, suffered the same death as his associate. His punishment was immediately followed by that of the archbishop, who was hung through the windows of the palace, and was not allowed even to divest himself of his prelatical robes. The last moments of Salviati, if we may credit Politiano, were marked by a singular instance of ferocity. Being suspended close to Francesco de’ Pazzi, he seized the naked body with his teeth, and relaxed not from his hold even in the agonies of death. Jacopo de’ Pazzi had escaped from the city during the tumult, but the day following he was made a prisoner by the neighbouring peasants, who regardless of his intreaties to put him to death, brought him to Florence, and delivered him up to the magistrates. As his guilt was manifest, his execution was instantaneous, and afforded from the windows of the palace another spectacle that gratified the resentment of the enraged multitude. His nephew Renato, who suffered at the same time, excited in some degree the commiseration of the spectators. Devoted to his studies, and averse to popular commotions, he had refused to be an actor in the conspiracy, and his silence was his only crime. The body of Giacompo had been interred in the church of Santa Croce, and to this circumstance the superstition of the people attributed an unusual and incessant fall of rain that succeeded these disturbances. Partaking in their prejudices, or desirous of gratifying their revenge, the magistrates ordered his body to be removed without the walls of the city. The following morning it was again torn from the grave by a great multitude of children, who in spite of the restrictions of decency, and the interference of some of the inhabitants, after dragging it a long time through the streets, and treating it with every degree of wanton

opprobrium, threw it into the river Arno. Such was the fate of a man who had enjoyed the highest honours of the republic, and for his services to the state had been rewarded with the privileges of the equestrian rank. The rest of this devoted family were condemned either to imprisonment or to exile, excepting only Guglielmo de' Pazzi, who, though not unsuspected, was first sheltered from the popular fury in the house of Lorenzo, and was afterwards ordered to remain at his own villa, about twenty-five miles distant from Florence.' Vol. i. p. 183.

Giuliano, thus cut off in the prime of his days, left a natural son, who was afterwards raised to the chair under the name of Clement VII.

Though Lorenzo had escaped the dagger of the assassin, he was exposed to the vengeance of the pope and the king of Naples, who combined against him, and offered the Florentines peace, only on condition of delivering up Lorenzo into their hands. In this perilous conjuncture, he took a resolution as magnanimous as the event proved it to be politic; which was, to go and negotiate personally with the king of Naples. The letter which he left for the states of Florence, before he set out to put himself in the hands of his declared enemy, is full of the most generous sentiments. It may be presumed, we think, that the treasures of the Medici family were not spared on this urgent occasion. The pope at length followed the example of Ferdinand; he took off the interdict he had laid on Florence,—and, the storm being blown over, Lorenzo was left at leisure to attend to those studies his elegant mind had been nourished with from his infancy; and the fifth chapter, the last in this volume, is devoted to a critical account of the state of Italian poetry, and particularly of the poems of Lorenzo.—It is a remarkable fact, and difficult to be accounted for, that, after the productions of Petrarch, Dante, and Boccaccio, the Italian tongue fell back into a degree of neglect and barbarism,—owing probably in a great measure to the classic enthusiasm which was so prevalent at the period we are now considering. To Lorenzo we are in great part to attribute,—not only by means of his patronage, but of his personal talents,—the revival of Italian poetry. He wrote in a great variety of measures, and on a variety of subjects, serious, tender, and comic; and after the intervention of so many centuries, during which his productions have very unaccountably slept in manuscript in the Laurentian library, he has had the good fortune to fall into the hands of one who, being himself a poet, has not only illustrated his productions with the taste and feeling of a congenial mind, but has translated a few of them with the greatest elegance and spirit. Of these

We shall give our readers two specimens in different styles ; for the Italian of the latter we must refer them to the publication—

‘ Oimè, che belle lagrime fur quelle
 Che'l nembo di disio stillando mosse !
 Quando il giusto dolor che'l cor percosse,
 Salì poi fu nell' amoroſe ſtelle !
 Rigavon per la delicata pelle
 Le bianche guancie dolcemente roſſe,
 Come chiar rio faria, che'n prato foſſe,
 Fior bianchi, e roſſi, le lagrime belle ;
 Lieto amor ſtava in l'amoroſa pioggia,
 Com' uccel dopo il ſol, bramate tanto,
 Lieto riceve rugiadoſe ſtille.
 Poi piangendo in quelli occhi ov' egli alloggia,
 Facea del bello e doloroſo pianto,
 Viſibilmente uſcir dolce faville.

‘ Ah pearly drops, that pouring from thoſe eyes,
 Spoke the diſſolving cloud of ſoft deſire !
 What time cold ſorrow chill'd the genial fire,
 “ Struck the fair urns and bade the waters riſe.”
 Soft down thoſe cheeks, where native crimſon vies
 With ivory whitenefs, ſee the chryſtals throng ;
 As ſome clear river winds its ſtream along,
 Bathing the flowers of pale and purple dyes.
 Whiſt Love, rejoicing in the amorous ſhower,
 Stands like ſome bird, that after ſultry heats
 Enjoys the drops, and ſhakes his glittering wings :
 Then graſps his bolt, and conſcious of his power,
 Midſt thoſe bright orbs aſſumes his wonted feat,
 And thro' the lucid ſhower his living light'ning flings.’

Vol. i. P. 260.

The image of Love bathing his wings, which has been uſed by ſeveral poets, Mr. Roſcoe traces up to this ſonnet of Lorenzo, as the original of it.—The next is of a graver caſt ; and with it we ſhall conclude our account of this volume, and, for the preſent, of this intereſting publication—

‘ Riſe from thy trance, my ſlumbering genius riſe,
 That ſhrouds from truth's pure beam thy torpid eyes !
 Awake, and ſee, ſince reaſon gave the rein
 To low deſire, thy every work how vain.
 Ah think how falſe that bliſs the mind explores,
 In futile honours, or unbounded ſtores ;
 How poor the bait that would thy ſteps decoy
 To ſenſual pleaſure, and unmeaning joy.

Rouse all thy powers for better use designed,
And know thy native dignity of mind;
Not for low aims and mortal triumphs given,
Its means exertion, and its object heaven.

‘Hast thou not yet the difference understood,
’Twixt empty pleasure, and substantial good?
Not more opposed—by all the wise contest,
The rising orient from the farthest west.

‘Doom’d from thy youth the galling chain to prove
Of potent beauty, and imperious love,
Their tyrant rule has blighted all thy time,
And marr’d the promise of thy early prime.
’Tho’ beauty’s garb thy wondering gaze may win,
Yet know that wolves, that harpies dwell within.

‘Ah think, how fair thy better hopes had sped,
Thy widely erring steps had reason led;
Think, if thy time a nobler use had known,
Ere this the glorious prize had been thine own.
Kind to thyself, thy clear discerning will
Had wisely learnt to sever good from ill.
Thy spring-tide hours consum’d in vain delight,
Shall the same follies close thy wint’ry night?
With vain pretexts of beauty’s potent charms,
And nature’s frailty blunting reason’s arms?
—At length thy long lost liberty regain,
Tear the strong tie, and break the inglorious chain,
Freed from false hopes assume thy native powers,
And give to reason’s rule thy future hours;
To her dominion yield thy trusting soul,
And bend thy wishes to her strong control;
Till Love, the serpent that destroy’d thy rest,
Crush’d by her hand shall mourn his humbled crest.’

Vol. i. p. 284.

*The Story of the Moor of Venice. Translated from the Italian.
with two Essays on Shakespeare, and preliminary Observations.
By Wolstenholme Parr, A. M. late Fellow of Corpus Christi
College, Oxford. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1795.*

THIS publication consists of an *Essay on Shakspeare's Coriolanus*, and another on *Othello*,—the story on which *Othello* is founded, translated from the Italian,—and an Appendix, containing a Mahommedan prayer, which the eccentric Wortley Montague is said to have worn about his neck till he died. In the essays we meet with nothing peculiarly acute and ingenious, though many of the observations may be just.

just. As to Coriolanus, it certainly is not Shakspeare's best play; and we are of the opinion of the essay writer, that the catastrophe might be more highly wrought, though we do not think that the previous display of the character of Coriolanus is by any means useless. The story of *the Moor of Venice* is translated from *Giraldi Cintio*. Giraldi wrote an hundred novels divided into decades; and the Moor of Venice is the seventh of the third decade. The edition was printed by Leonardo Torrentino, 1561. It is well known that our great dramatic writer borrowed all his plots which were not historical, from the popular stories of the time. In the present instance, the play follows the track of the novel in all the chief circumstances. But the catastrophe is varied. Exceptionable as the strangling of Desdemona is, it is infinitely less so than the brutal murder of the story:—and we need not say, how much more interesting is the generous remorse of Othello, than his dying by the tardy vengeance of his wife's relations. It is possible, however, that Shakspeare might have seen some other edition of the same story, in which strangling was substituted for the other mode of murder; for if he had invented the strangling, one would suppose he might have managed it better.

After all, though literary curiosity is gratified by tracking our great bard in the footsteps of those writers who have furnished him with his plots and incidents, his admirers have no occasion to tremble for his fame, though it should be proved that he had borrowed every circumstance he has introduced:—*that* rests on a much higher ground, the exhibition of character. The account of the murder, to which we have referred, is as follows—

‘ And discoursing together if poison or the dagger would be best, and not liking either the one or the other, the ensign said, “ A method has occurred to me that would satisfy you without creating the least suspicion. The house where you live is very old, and the ceiling of your chamber is broken in many places. Desdemona might be beaten to death with a stocking full of sand, and no marks of this would remain on the body: when she is dead we will pull down a part of the ceiling, and bruise your wife's head; then give out that a beam in falling has done this, and killed her. If you follow this advice you will avoid all suspicion, and every one will believe her death to have been accidental.” This savage advice pleased the Moor; and waiting for a convenient opportunity, he concealed the ensign one night in a closet that communicated with their chamber. When they were in bed the ensign according to his instruction made a noise in the closet, and the Moor immediately asked his wife if she had heard it? She answered

ed yes.—“Get up then and see what it is.” Poor Desdemona obeyed, and as soon as she was near the closet-door the ensign rushed out, and with the stocking that he had prepared gave her a violent blow on the small of the back. She fell down scarce able to breathe; but with what little force she had, she called the Moor to her assistance. He got out of bed, and said to her, “Most infamous woman, you are now to receive the just reward of your infidelity!—even so are those wives treated who, pretending to love their husbands, are untrue to their beds.” The poor woman hearing these words, and feeling that she was ready to expire from a second blow that the ensign had given her, said, “That since the justice of this world was refused her, she attested the divine justice in favour of her honour and her truth;” and invoking the divine assistance, she was finished by the impious ensign, who struck her a third time. Afterwards they placed her in bed; and after breaking her skull, they drew down, as they had determined beforehand, a part of the ceiling. The Moor then called out for help as the house was falling. The neighbours on this alarm ran thither, and found Desdemona dead under the beams. Her life had been so virtuous that every one lamented her fate; and the following day she was buried, to the great sorrow of the whole island. But God, who is a just observer of the hearts of men, suffered not so great a crime to pass without the punishment that was due to it. So that the Moor, who had loved Desdemona more than his eyes, finding himself deprived of her, began to regret her so extremely, that he almost lost his senses, and went about the house looking for her in every room. Reflecting besides that the ensign had been the cause of his losing along with her all the enjoyments of life, and even his own faculties, that villain became so insupportable to him that he could not bear the sight of him; and had he not feared the strict and impartial justice of the Venetians, he would have put him openly to death. But not being able to do this with safety to himself, he degraded him from his commission, and permitted him no longer to remain in the company. Hence arose between them the most bitter enmity that can be conceived; and the ensign, the greatest of all villains, studied only how he might be revenged on the Moor. He went to the lieutenant, who was cured and walked about with his wooden leg, and said to him, “The time is now come when you may be revenged for the loss of your leg; and if you will come with me to Venice, I will tell you who the assassin was. Here I dare not inform you for many reasons; but there I will be your witness in a court of justice.” The lieutenant, who felt himself violently exasperated against the person though unknown to him, thanked the ensign, and came away with him to Venice. When they were arrived, the ensign told him that the Moor was the person who had cut off his leg, because he suspected him of adultery with his wife, and that for the same reason he had murder-

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ed her, and afterwards given out that she had been killed by the ceiling's falling in upon her. The lieutenant on hearing this, immediately accused the Moor before the council of the injury done to himself and the murder of Desdemona; and the ensign being called as a witness, asserted the truth of both these accusations, and added that the Moor had communicated to him the whole project, with a view of persuading him to execute both these crimes; and when he had murdered his wife from the impulse of a furious jealousy, he had related to him the manner in which he had put her to death. The Venetian magistrates hearing that one of their fellow-citizens had been treated with so much cruelty by a barbarian, had the Moor arrested in Cyprus and brought to Venice, where, by means of the torture, they endeavoured to find out the truth. But the Moor possessed force and constancy of mind sufficient to undergo the torture without confessing any thing; and though by his firmness he escaped death at this time, he was after a long imprisonment condemned to perpetual exile, in which he was afterwards killed, as he deserved to be, by his wife's relations.' P. 56.

The Mahommedan prayer, given in the Appendix, and which, it must be confessed, is but slightly connected with Othello, was, it seems, a charm; and the following story is told of it;—a similar tale is related of the ring of Charlemagne—

* We are told in the Tales of Seeich Gemaluddin Jusof (to whom may the mercy of God be shewn) that Haliffa, the Lord of Credenti *, had in his service a hundred young slaves, all of whom were of extraordinary beauty. It happened one day that a black woman, called Mergian, was presented to him, for whom it was impossible to awaken the passions of whoever beheld her. To such a degree was she disgusting and deformed. The moment Haliffa saw her his affections were raised to the greatest height. He fell in love and neglected the other slaves. Day and night he lived only with her, and placed in her hands all his possessions. He could not be without her for a single moment, and consulted her in affairs of the utmost importance, to the great astonishment of the matrons and other slaves. By the divine permission she one day fell sick; and her infirmity continually increasing, was accomplished also in her that divine decree which circumscribes and renders inevitable the final close of mortal life. She was afterwards stripped to be buried. But this was not permitted by her enamoured master, who for three days and three nights took no food, not so much as a drop of water; and deplored his loss beyond the reach of consolation.

* The holy ministers of the canon assembled about him, and by

* In the original, perhaps, *de' credenti*, the lord of the believers, that is of the Mussulmans,—a title often applied to the caliphs, &c. REV.

various exhortations prevailed on him to allow her to be interred. As they were carrying her body to its tomb, the following prayer fell from the ringlets of her hair, and was immediately carried to the sovereign. As soon as he had read it, he desired to see the dead body; which then appeared, even in his eyes, a frightful and deformed slave. He was struck with surprise and astonishment. When the ministers of the court knew that Mergian no longer appeared beautiful in the eyes of her master, they discovered this change to be occasioned by the pious ejaculation which she had constantly worn. So that taking it from the hands of their sovereign, and considering its substance, they declared it to be good, of incomparable accuracy, and worthy of their entire approbation. This ought to be worn about the person or in the hair, in order to feel its prodigious effects. It renders the person who wears it invulnerable to the darts of slander, preserves them from enchantments, and every other perverse operation of human malice, and gives duration and increase to prosperity and pleasure. Whoever doubts the efficacy of this relique, is certainly both atheist and infidel. May the Lord God preserve us from such blindness.' r. 86.

We must remark that Mr. Parr is not the first who has translated the story of Giraldis; and that his materials are rather too slight and too miscellaneous, to furnish a very respectable publication.

A Practical Essay on the good and bad Effects of Sea-Water and Sea-Bathing. By John Anderson, M. D. F. A. S. C. M. S. &c. Physician to, and a Director of, the general Sea-Bathing Infirmary at Margate. 8vo. 2s. Sewed. Dilly. 1795.

MUCH as the practice of sea-bathing has increased within these few years, little attention has yet been paid to the nature of the diseases in which it may be recommended with the greatest probability of success, or to the affording of suitable directions for those who employ it.

Nor will the pamphlet before us present much novelty of information on these points. The materials of which it is composed, are not only ill-arranged, but extremely trifling; and the directions which it contains, are given in much too vague and indeterminate a manner, to be of advantage to those who may make use of the remedy. The author's attention seems to have been directed more to the recommendation of Margate as a *bathing place*, than the pointing out with precision the diseases in which sea-bathing may be had recourse to with the greatest prospect of relief, or describing the circumstances and situations in which it may be safely employed.

Indeed

Indeed the determination of these points is by no means a task of easy execution; it requires a considerable portion of philosophical as well as medical knowledge. A nice application of chemical and physiological principles is necessary to the full and proper explanation of the action of bathing on the human system, whether it be hot, cold, or that of the sea. It is, therefore, not the accounts of those who have been engaged in conducting *bathing* patients, or the reports of nurses, that can alone be trusted to; the experience and observation of those who have attentively considered the subject, and who are capable of discerning and discriminating effects, must also be had recourse to, in order fully to ascertain the situations in which sea-bathing is useful.

After mentioning a *few* of the circumstances which should be constantly attended to in sea-bathing, Dr. Anderfon recommends the use of it in most of the diseases of the uterine system; as he finds it to be a fact, that sea-bathing both opens and shuts, relaxes and braces, or has ‘the power and property of removing suppressed menses, and of restraining a too abundant flow.’

If the doctor had attended for a moment to the state of the system in which these different effects take place, he would not have had so much difficulty in the explanation of these *seemingly* opposite effects.

We are next told, that—

‘The virtue and efficacy of the sea-bath is not always so sensibly felt immediately while on the spot, as in a few weeks afterwards. In the above two ladies’ cases, wherein the bath had been persisted in too long, that is, until their habits were too much depressed, a morbid turn given to the fluids, and loss of tension to the solids; yet, on the bath being desisted from, I found it easier to restore their much debilitated habits by proper medicinal and dietetic adjuvants than if the symptoms had arisen from any morbid cause. I have found it less difficult to cure hysteria after a course of sea-bathing, though I have never met with any yet cured by it alone. I say the same of epilepsy and some other diseases, wherefore in certain cases, it is only auxiliary.’ p. 20.

We have not much opinion of any remedy, the effects of which are not almost immediately evident. The following passage will afford the reader an opportunity of judging of Dr. Anderfon’s claims as a writer and medical reasoner—

‘If the sea-bath had not only the effect of causing universal oscillation and contraction, but also expansion, it would not be so efficacious in subduing viscosity, or preternatural cohesion in the fluids, and fitting them for passing through the glandular strainers; and the noxious principle for being separated, and either depurated

on safe parts, or cast off by the different emunctories or outlets from the body, to leave room for the introduction of new benign particles fit for the process of assimilation, animalization, and reparation of the waste. Unassimilated particles bring nothing to the stock of the animal fibres, for making them strong and elastic, in their alternate contraction and dilatation.

‘ Animals and vegetables, as well as the ocean, require to be kept in a continual fluxionary state of ebbing and flowing, contracting and dilating, heating and cooling, filling and emptying. And though some require oftener and greater mutation than others, yet none bear with ease the violent extreme long continued. Extreme right is extreme wrong. Swimming long dispirits more by the relaxation of the water than by the exercise, and gives cramps, chills, and rigors. The sea-bath does not altogether depend upon the mere stimulus of heat and cold on the organs of sensation, but also upon the absorption of some of the aqueous saline particles, or how comes such great changes to take place in the animal œconomy? Sea-water, though very penetrating, as the orifices of the inhalent and exhalent vessels are induced to contract on entering the cold bath, there cannot much of the watery particles be absorbed, or the animal fluids pass off on a momentary dip: only, on a long and a frequent immersion, laxation and debility take place. The cold application to the skin, whether of air or water, contracts the pores, and retains innate heat, *i. e.* condenses the rarefied spirituous air, which, on the pressure being taken off, breaks out again with greater force upon the superficies of the body.

‘ As gravity and pressure must be taken into account, a dip in the sea must be preferable to a dip in a tub or river. In the tepid bath neither gravity nor pressure, nor spring is so much wanted, only longer continuance to answer the purpose of a relaxant, softener, and cleanser. All that is wanted by the sea-bath for the animal machine is to bring about the equipoise or mutual balance between the solids and fluids in the system, for maintaining the pabulum vitæ, or spark of life.’ P. 23.

A little farther on we meet with more *reasoning* respecting pressure, and a portion of unintelligible stuff concerning ‘ nature abhorring a vacuum.’

In turning over a few more of the pages of this essay, we were struck with a circumstance which is certainly not very favourable to the quarter whence the author has *principally* derived his information, and his ‘ practical facts.’ The doctor has learned from the Margate sea-bathing *guides*, that they consider a dip in the salt-water ‘ as a certain specific’ against that dreadful disease the hydrophobia.

But though the ignorant and credulous guides to whom the author applied, might suppose, or even believe this to be really

the case,—no man who has the least pretension to medical erudition, could for a moment entertain such an opinion. The voice of fatal experience has long been decisively opposed to the conclusion. If the author had sufficiently attended to the numerous reports and histories of cases of this kind, he would have had reason not only to *doubt*, but to be convinced of the inutility and inefficacy of the remedy.

In nervous and hypochondriacal disorders, the doctor's promises are at least equal to any that we remember to have been made by the *celebrated* Martin Van Butchell—

‘Quit (says he) the smoky town, and fly hither to the Isle of Thanet (the island of health) and I will promise you health, strength, and good spirits, unless the complaint be too deeply rooted ever to have *mens sana in corpore sano*.’ P. 41.

Having strongly advised the use of sea-bathing under *proper* directions, in a variety of other disorders which affect the human frame, the doctor draws his labours to a conclusion, and sums up ‘the power, operation, influence, and effect of sea bathing,’ as generally employed, in the following *very perspicuous* manner. It is, says he,

‘Strengthening or debilitating,
Bracing or relaxing,
Stimulant or sedative,
Augmenting or diminishing,
Condensing or rarefying,
Elevating or depressing,
Inspissating or attenuating,
Evacuating or restringing,
Altering or confirming,
Purifying or vitiating,
Heating or cooling,
Indurating or mollifying,
Deterging and healing,
Irritating, inflaming, and exulcerating.

‘In a word, in some affections it is curative, even specific: in others it disagrees, and in some dubious.’ P. 62.

We could have wished to have had it in our power to have spoken more favourably of the tract before us, particularly as the profits arising from its sale are to be applied to the use of a charitable establishment, the ‘general sea-bathing infirmary at Margate,’—an institution which we are in some respects inclined to think favourably of. We hope, however, that the promised researches of Dr. Anderson may tend to enlarge the boundaries of our knowledge on a subject which is still im-

perfectly

perfectly understood; and that 'the torch,' which he tells us he has put 'into the hands of the inquisitive,' may lead to useful discoveries in the science of medicine.

The Pains of Memory. A Poem. By Robert Merry, A. M.
4to. 3s. Sewed. Robinsons. 1796.

WHETHER a retrospective view of life is productive of most pleasure or pain, has been disputed by men of reflection; and each side of the question has been maintained by the poets. The pleasures of memory have been beautifully represented by Mr. Rogers,—and the title of the present poem, we suppose, has some reference to that. Without inquiring whether Mr. Rogers or Mr. Merry has chosen the more agreeable subject for poetry, we may venture to say, that the pleasures and the pains of memory, are both calculated to produce those lively conceptions and strong feelings that accord with a poetical imagination.

With respect to the present poem,—though it is, perhaps, not so full of incident as might be wished, and inclines to a kind of monotony of querulousness, it yet possesses many very beautiful passages, that must awaken all the tender sympathies, and please every lover of poetry:—we with pleasure select the following—

‘ When mournful evening’s gradual vapours spread
O’er the dim plain, and veil the river’s bed;
While her own star with dull and wat’ry eye
Peeps through the sev’ring darkness of the sky;
While the mute birds to lonely coverts haste,
And silence listens on the stumb’rous waste:
When tyrant frost his strong dominion holds,
And not a blade expands, a bud unfolds,
But nature dead, divested of her green,
Cloath’d in a solemn pallid shroud is seen:
When gather’d thunders burst, abrupt, and loud,
And midnight lightning leaps from cloud to cloud,
Or rends, with forceful, momentary stroke,
The ivied turret, and the giant oak;
Can faint remembrance of meridian mirth,
Bedeck with visionary charms the earth;
Renew the season when each wak’ning flow’r
Lifted its leaves to drink the morning show’r;
Dispel the gloom, the fiery storm remove,
Gem the wide vault and animate the grove?
The fond illusions could but feebly shew,
The colours scarce appear, or faintly glow,

Fix'd would the sad realities remain,
And memory waste her vaunted stores in vain.
Alas ! all inefficient is her pow'r,
To cheer, by what is past, the present hour,
For ev'ry good gone by, each transport o'er,
She may regret, but never can restore.
Yet shall her fest'ring touch corrode the heart,
Compel the subjugated tear to start :
She calls grim phantoms, from the shad'wy deep,
And sends her furies forth to torture sleep :
The lapse of time, the strength of reason dares,
And with fresh rage her straining rack prepares.' P. 1.

The following description of madness is very poetical—

' Observe yon structure stretching o'er the plain,
Sad habitation of the lost, insane !
Ha ! at the grates what grisly forms appear,
What dismal shrieks of laughter wound the ear !
Heart-broken love the tenderest measure pours,
Sighs, and laments, incessantly adores ;
Insatiate fury clanks his pond'rous chains,
Suspicious av'rice counts ideal gains ;
Bewilder'd pride the swelling crest uprears,
And causeless penitence is drown'd in tears :
Wan jealousy, with scrutinizing glance,
On ev'ry side sees rival youths advance ;
While maddest murder waits the sword to draw,
And ostentation flaunts in robes of straw :
Pale, piteous melancholy clasps her hands,
Sunk in deep thought, and as a statue stands ;
Convulsive joy, imaginary state,
Low envy, ghastly fear, determin'd hate,
Loud agonizing horror, dumb despair,
And all the passions are distorted there.
Amidst those gall'ries drear, those doleful cells,
The unrelenting despot, mem'ry, dwells.
Fix'd on the burning brain, she urges still
Her ruthless pow'r, in mock'ry of the will ;
Regretted raptures, long remember'd woes,
And ev'ry varying anguish, she bestows ;
This is her sumptuous palace, these her slaves,
She reigns triumphant when the maniac raves.
But O ! her victims feel the heaviest stroke,
Whene'er at intervals the spell is broke ;
When casual reason is awhile restor'd,
And they themselves are by themselves deplor'd.' P. 21.

We close our quotations with the following very affecting and beautiful lines—

‘Thou too, forgetfulness! whose opiate charm
 Can hush the passions, and their rage disarm;
 Approach, O kindly grant thy suppliant, aid!
 Wrap him in sweet oblivion’s placid shade;
 Veil the gay, transitory scenes, that fled,
 Like gleamy sunshine o’er the mountain’s head;
 Sink in the dark abyss of endless night
 The artificial phantoms of delight;
 Nor let his early ign’rance, and mistake,
 The sober bliss of age and reason shake.
 Hide from his heart each suff’ring country’s woe,
 And o’er its chains thy cov’ring mantle throw;
 Hide yon deluded agonizing train,
 Who bleed by thousands on the purple plain;
 Their piercing cries, their dying groans controul,
 And lock up all the feelings of his soul.
 Shield him from slander’s persecuting race,
 Who seek to wound, and labour to disgrace,
 Who view the humblest worth with jealous eye,
 The viper brood of black malignity!
 So shall, perchance, content with thee return,
 ’Mongst vernal sweets to raise his wintry urn;
 To his retreat tranquillity repair,
 “And freedom dwell a pensive hermit there.”
 O! in retirement may he rest at last,
 The present, calm, forgotten all the past;
 Beside the babling brook at twilight’s close,
 Taste the soft solace of the mind’s repose;
 Lift the lorn nightingale’s impulsive lay,
 That soothes the evening of retiring May,
 When the young moon her paly flag displays,
 And o’er the stream the panting zephyr strays;
 No heedless hours recall’d, no festive roar,
 That once deluded, but can please no more;
 No wild emotions bid his comforts cease,
 Or from his cottage drive the angel peace;
 Nor vain ambition tempt his thoughts anew,
 But still preserve the friendship of the few;
 Still, still preserve the fond domestic smile,
 Of her, whose voice can ev’ry care beguile;
 With meek philosophy his hours employ,
 Or thrilling poetry’s delicious joy;
 And from the faded promises of youth,
 Retain the love of liberty and truth.’ P. 33.

The public are already possessed of favourable specimens of Mr. Merry's poetical talents; and from the preceding quotations, we doubt not, our readers will not scruple to pronounce, that the Pains of Memory possesses very considerable merit.

Epistles Domestic, Confidential, and Official, from General Washington. Written about the Commencement of the American Contest, when he entered on the Command of the Army of the United States, &c. &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1796.

WHEN the volume before us first came to our hands, we took it up with avidity, expecting that it no doubt contained the promised continuation of, or the Appendix to, the two interesting volumes of general Washington's genuine and authentic 'Official Letters,' of which we gave our readers an account last year*. But we were soon undeceived by the following history of its contents—

'The public will naturally be inquisitive as to the authenticity of the following letters. For every thing else, they will speak for themselves: and, for their genuineness, the editor conceives himself concerned to give only such vouchers as he himself has received. By the last packet he was favoured with a letter from a friend, now serving in a loyal corps under brigadier-general Delancey of New-York, of which he here subjoins a faithful extract.'
"Among the prisoners at Fort-Lee, I espied a mulatto fellow, whom I thought I recollected, and who confirmed my conjectures by gazing very earnestly at me. I asked him if he knew me. At first he was unwilling to own it; but when he was about to be carried off, thinking, I suppose, that I might, perhaps, be of some service to him, he came and told me, that he was Billy, and the old servant of general Washington. He had been left there on account of an indisposition which prevented his attending his master. I asked him a great many questions, as you may suppose; but found very little satisfaction in his answers. At last, however, he told me that he had a small portmanteau of his master's, of which, when he found that he must be put into confinement, he entreated my care. It contained only a few stockings and shirts; and I could see nothing worth my care, except an almanack, in which he had kept a sort of a journal, or diary of his proceedings since his first coming to New-York: there were also two letters from his lady, one from Mr. Custis, and some pretty long ones from a Mr. Lund Washington. And in the same bundle with them, the first draughts, or

* See Vol. XIII. p. 428, and Vol. XVI. p. 170.

foul copies, of answers to them. I read these with avidity; and being highly entertained with them, have shewn them to several of my friends, who all agree with me, that *he is a very different character from what they had supposed him.*' PP. 1, 2.

Different indeed ! very different from what he ever was, or is, or e'er will be. But, not to keep our readers in suspense, we proceed to inform them that the extract above quoted, and the letters to which it relates, are, all together, an arrant forgery,—a forgery, however, not of recent date, but a stale antiquated one. During the American contest, when British honour stooped to many a deed on which we should blush to bestow the appropriate epithet,—when every attempt to decoy and wean general Washington from the service of his country had proved fruitless,—when no better success had attended a conspiracy against his person (see his Official Letters, vol. i. p. 174), and the wretch who had been bribed to betray or assassinate his general, had paid his forfeit life at the gallows,—then, a staunch loyalist, a faithful servant of the ruling ministry, fabricated these pieces (*dolus, an virtus, quis in hosc re-quirat ? ! ! !*) for the laudable purpose of bringing the American chief into disrepute, and rendering him an object of suspicion in the eyes of his countrymen.—Had the stratagem succeeded,—had general Washington been removed from office, and the conduct of the army been intrusted to some hot-headed and less prudent commander, who would on every occasion have rashly led out his raw troops into the field against the veterans of Britain, of Hesse-Cassel, and of Waldeck,—it is by no means improbable that the royal army might have marched triumphant from one end of the continent to the other, with as much ease as the French have since over-run Holland.—But, to return to our subject,—In New York,—at the head-quarters of the British army,—under the wing of the British commander in chief, these letters were manufactured : and they were there published in a ministerial newspaper that was infamous all over the continent for the shameless and impudent falsehoods which it daily held forth to the eyes of an astonished and indignant people. In that paper it was common to see pretended resolutions of congress, calculated to disband the American armies, or make them rise in rebellion against their employers,—and to alienate the whole country from the cause of liberty. One black instance of such forgery is mentioned with becoming indignation and contempt by general Washington in his Official Letters (vol. ii. p. 267) ; and many others might be quoted, if it were worth our while, or if we thought our readers could patiently bear the recital of the infamy of their countrymen.—The fabricator of these letters was well known at the time ; and we have been credi-

bly informed (but unable positively to ascertain the fact) that he was complimented with a handsome pension, as a reward for his loyalty and well-meant efforts on that and similar occasions. Though his stratagem failed of success, the intention was nevertheless equally *meritorious*, and entitled him to the grateful regards of those who never fail to reward talents exerted in *so good* a cause. The Americans, however, despised and laughed at the contents of the mulatto's budget, and continued to repose the same well-merited confidence in their general, as before; and the pretended letters were apparently consigned to eternal oblivion,—when, contrary to all expectation, the obsolete slander has been lately revived by some of the opposers of general Washington's government, who have collected them into a volume, in hopes, no doubt, to mislead the new generation that has sprung up since the war, and the numerous emigrants who have settled in America within the last twenty years. But the editors cannot hope to mislead posterity: for impartial History will never deign to dip her pencil in this impure puddle of falsehood and slander, nor darken the fair character of the American chief with any of the black colouring here presented to her by the hand of stark-naked unblushing Forgery. If she condescend to take any notice of the contents of this volume, it will be only for the purpose of recording the infamy of those who were concerned in the fabrication and propagation of such shameless calumny, and to exhibit, in an advantageous point of view, the good sense and discernment of the Americans, who contemned and disregarded it.

To give our readers, however, a specimen of the fabricator's abilities, we lay before them the most striking passages,—those which constituted the chief object of the forgery; the rest, in fact, being 'nought but leather and prunel o,'—mere common-place trash, solely calculated as a convenient cloak to screen the poisoned dagger intended to assassinate the character of the American commander—

'Our want of skill, our want of ammunition, *&c.* *&c.* want of every thing which an army ought to have, are all, no doubt, exceedingly against us; but, they are all nothing to our want of virtue—Unused to the many arts and devices, by which *deserving men* carry their points, I unwillingly listened to my own apprehensions, when early in the first congress, I thought I saw a tendency to measures which I never could approve of. I reasoned myself, however, out of my fears, with no ordinary reproach on my own meanness, in having given way to suspicions, which could not be true, unless we had *men amongst ourselves more flagitious* than even those we were opposing. At length, however, when a continental army came to be voted for, my fears returned with redoubled

force : for then, for the first time, I clearly saw our aims reached farther than we cared to avow. It was carried with an unanimity that really astonished me ; because I knew many who voted for it, were as *averse to the independency of America, as I WAS*. And they even ridiculed me for my apprehensions on that account : and, indeed, when they suggested that Great Britain, seeing us apparently determined to risk every thing rather than that they should tax us, would never think of engaging in a civil war with us, which must necessarily cost her more than even America could repay her, I could not but hope, that I was mistaken ; and that our military preparations might be a good political movement. In one thing, however, we all agreed, that, as the forces were chiefly to be raised in New-England, it would be extremely rash and imprudent in the southern delegates to leave them in the possession of so formidable a power without any check. I need not tell you, that it was *this consideration* which, if am to be credited, *solely against my will, determined me to accept of the command of this army.*' P. 6.

' What you say on the subject of independency is perfectly judicious, and, no doubt, highly worthy of all our most serious consideration. Yet, I have a presentiment, that it will take place, and speedily. Open and unreserved as my conduct towards you has ever been, I have no reluctance to confess to you, that *the measure is diametrically opposite to my judgment* ; for I have not yet despaired of an honourable reconciliation ; and whilst I can entertain but an hope of that, both interest and inclination lead me to prefer it to every thing else upon earth. Human affairs are oddly ordered : to obtain what you most wish for, you must often make use of means you the least approve of.

' As in bargaining, to obtain a fair and equal price, you must frequently ask more than you wish to take. *I do not really wish for independence. I hope there are few who do.*' P. 21.

' We have overshot our mark : we have grasped at things beyond our reach : it is impossible we should succeed ; and *I cannot, with truth, say that I am sorry for it* ; because *I am far from being sure that we deserve to succeed.*' P. 5.

' As far as I have the controul of them, all our preparations of war aim only at peace. It is impossible to suppose, that, in the leisure and quiet of winter quarters, men will not have virtue to listen to the dictates of plain common sense and sober reason. *I love my king* ; you know I do : a soldier, a good man cannot but love him. How peculiarly hard then is our fortune, to be deemed traitors to *so good a king* ! But I am not without hopes, that *even he will yet see cause to do me justice.*' PP. 61, 62.

Here was sufficient (had it but gained credit) to render the entire congress, and all the supporters of American independency, hostile to the supposed writer. The motive attributed to him for taking the command of the army, was also well devised to render the whole of the New-England states jealous of him. And to render him unpopular in the southern states also, the fabricator was careful to make him draw a very unfavourable character of the influential family of the Lees, p. 50,—to paint in equally disadvantageous colours that of Mr. Henry, the idol of Virginia,—to suggest the hint of undermining and superseding him in the office of governor, p. 49,—and to drop a left-handed compliment (p. 64) calculated to disgust the whole corps of the Virginian officers. But we forbear to quote this trash, and hasten to present our readers with the following precious *morceau*,—the master-stroke of the whole performance. It was certainly well contrived to excite in the minds of the Americans the idea of a Pisistratus, a Cæsar, or a Cromwell,—and sufficient, of itself alone, to have entitled the writer to a handsome pension—

‘ There are men who are for ever suggesting suspicions and jealousies of the army and its commander. My own heart assures me I mean them no ill: however, if I really have the influence and ascendancy which they suppose, *I will* for their sakes, as well as my own, *hereafter maintain it at some little cost*. A thousand considerations determine me *to strain every nerve to prevent the army’s being under any other controul, whilst I live*. Let a persuasion of the necessity of this, if occasion should arise, be seasonably urged in my native state: and in the mean while, *let some more than ordinary pains be taken to make me popular*. Their own honour and interest are both concerned in my being so. Shew this to Mr. Dandridge; and, as you both can *enter into my meaning, even from the most distant hints*, I can rest satisfied, that you will do every thing I wish you.’ p. 51.

The Appendix presents us with an instance of barefaced forgery, which must reflect eternal disgrace on the author and propagators of it. We are presented with one hundred and twenty-six pages of papers (such as they are) respecting the treatment and exchange of prisoners,—the whole tending to impress the reader with a persuasion that the exchange was purposely avoided on the part of general Washington from motives of ‘cruel and unjustifiable policy,’ viz. an unwillingness to release British soldiers enlisted for life, in exchange for Americans, who, having completed their term of service, would immediately return to their families, instead of rejoining the continental army. And the better to inculcate a belief that he was actuated by such motive, a resolution of congress

is introduced (p. 104), apparently giving him full power to treat for a general exchange of prisoners. But, on comparing that resolution with the printed Journals of Congress, we find it to be grossly falsified in the instance before us: and, lest we should attribute the *faux-pas* to a casual error of the press, the same falsification is again repeated in two other places, pages 110, and 115. In all those three passages, the congress are made to say, that ‘if . . . all the officers of the enemy shall be exchanged, and a balance of *prisoners* remain in their hands, then an equivalent of *privates* shall be settled;’ whereas, in the Journals (vol. iv. p. 667), we find ‘a balance of *officers*,’ and ‘an equivalent of *privates*, to be given in exchange for *such officers*;’ congress having limited their views, on that occasion, to the release of *their officers* only, and effectually tied up their general’s hands from proceeding any farther in the business of exchanges than was absolutely necessary for the attainment of that single object.—Whether, or how far, that body might have been influenced by the political consideration abovementioned, we leave it to others to determine:—certain it is, that the exchanges were not always carried on with a degree of alacrity and expedition equal to the wishes of the unfortunate sufferers, and their friends: but it is equally certain, that, if there existed any such motive for backwardness and delay, as that which is here suggested, it neither originated with general Washington, nor was, in the smallest degree, sanctioned by his approbation. On the contrary, he ever reprobated such policy: and, accordingly, we find him (in his Official Letters, vol. ii. pp. 235, & *seqq.*) combating it with all the glow of language, and energy of argument, which the honest indignation of a generous heart, and a tender sympathy for the sufferings of his gallant compatriots, could inspire.

Before we take leave of this volume,—which we would have thought unworthy of such minute attention, had we not conceived a possibility that some readers in this country might have unwarily received its contents as genuine,—we must notice an address from general Washington to an assembly of officers, at a time (March, 1783) when the most serious and alarming consequences were apprehended from the discontents which prevailed in the American army, and anonymous papers, ably and artfully written, were circulated throughout the camp (by emissaries from the British head-quarters at New York, as was generally supposed), in order to excite the troops to revolt and desert the standard of congress. The address does honour both to the general’s head and his heart, and well deserves to be read: for which reason, in order that the purchasers of the volume may have a correct copy of it, we furnish

furnish them with the following list of *errata*,—the true readings (which we inclose in crotchets) being transcribed from the printed Journals of Congress (vol. viii. p. 244) whence the piece was taken: for it is to be observed that the general gave that body early and particular intelligence of the whole proceedings.

‘How inconsistent with the rules of *propriety*, and how subversive’ [*propriety, how unmilitary, and how*]—‘let the good sense of the army judge’ [*decide*]—‘was put [*sent*] into circulation’—‘men see through difficulties’ [*different optics*]—‘the author of the piece’ [*address*]—‘the darkest suspicions’ [*suspicion*]—‘the blackest designs’ [*design*]—‘that it is intended [*and is designed*] to answer’—‘that it is intended [*calculated*] to impress’—‘premeditated injustice TO [IN] the sovereign power of the United States’—‘the first [*the secret*] mover’—‘warmed with [*by*] the recollection’—‘which is necessary’ [*so necessary*]—‘the hasty, irregular [*irregular and hasty*] meeting’—‘proposed to be [*to have been*] held’—‘and [*as*] my heart has ever expanded’—‘I heard [*have heard*] its praises’—‘my indignation has risen’ [*arisen*]—‘our children, and our [*children, our*] farms, and other property’—‘we have left [*have*] behind us’—‘a friend to the [*this*] country’—‘either project’ [*proposal*]—‘this [*that*] performance’—‘observations upon [*on*] the tendency’—‘recommend moderation’ [*moderate measures*]—‘every man regards [*who regards*] that liberty’—‘reveres the [*that*] justice’—‘involve the consideration’ [*involve the most serious and alarming consequences that can invite the consideration*]—‘and which [*what*] I have’—‘reason to believe’ [*conceive*]—‘from full [*a full*] conviction’—‘establish funds’ [*funds for this purpose*]—‘their deliberations’ [*determinations*]—‘which would [*may*] cast a shade’—‘which has been [*is*] celebrated’—‘we seek for’ [*seek*]—‘I had so long’ [*have so long had*]—‘those powers I AM bound’ [*WE ARE bound*] to respect’—‘the utmost of [*utmost extent of*] my abilities’—‘the sacred rights [*the rights*] of humanity’—‘with good’ [*in good*]—‘your enemies’ [*our enemies*]—‘one more proof’ [*distinguished proof*].

We have neither leisure nor room to point out the *errata* in the other papers which accompany the address, from p. 227 to 254. Such of our readers, therefore, as wish to peruse them in their genuine state, will do well to consult the Journals of Congress, which are neither scarce nor difficult of access in this country. They will there (from p. 225 to p. 249 of vol. viii.) find the whole of them, together with other pieces on the same subject, which have been passed over in silence by the editors of this volume of forgery,—though interesting in

themselves, and absolutely necessary in order to exhibit the business in a proper point of light, and to afford a clear and impartial view of the manly and virtuous line of conduct pursued on the occasion by the American commander in chief. But, we humbly crave their pardon!—*that* might not perhaps have answered their purpose, which evidently was no other than to blacken, at all events, and vilify the character of general Washington, and to render his person and his government unpopular with the citizens of the United States.

An Essay on Musical Harmony, according to the Nature of that Science, and the Principles of the greatest Musical Authors. By Augustus Frederic Christopher Kollmann, Organist of his Majesty's German Chapel, at St. James's. Folio. 1l. 1s. Dale. 1796.

IT is but seldom that our attention is called to publications of this kind;—nor do we remember to have seen the present work advertised; but having had it recommended to our notice by an excellent judge of the subject, we thought it our duty to give our readers an account of it.

In recollecting the books that have appeared in our language during the present century, on the art of *musical composition*, to which this essay is chiefly confined, and on consulting the catalogue at the end of the fourth volume of Dr. Burney's *General History of Music*, we find but few works that throw any light upon the dark, thorny, and mysterious road to practical harmony, or the art of selecting and combining musical sounds in such a way as shall please ignorant lovers of music, and satisfy learned professors.

Dr. HOLDER, in 1701, gave us *the natural grounds and principles of harmony*, but no instructions for its use.

In 1721, MALCOLM'S *Treatise on Music, speculative, practical, and historical*, appeared. But though this is an elaborate work on *harmonics*, or speculative music, it contains very little instruction for *composition*; as, out of 608 pages, of which the volume consists, only thirty-eight have been appropriated to that subject; and even these, we are told by Mr. Malcolm, 'were communicated to him by a friend, who from modesty would not suffer himself to be named.' But, short and few as are the rules contained in these pages, they contain prohibitions and restrictions, which would perplex a student of the present time, and narrow his resources.

The *Treatise on Harmony*, ascribed to Dr. PEPUSCH, appeared in 1731. This little book contains many excellent rules and examples; but the art has received such improvements,

ments, or at least changes, since the time of its publication, that a musician who should know no more than he could learn from this treatise, would not rank high among modern composers.

In 1742, was published GEMINIANI's *Guida Armonica*, from which much was expected by the musicians of that time; but it turned out to be little better than the *Laputan* machine in Gulliver's Travels,—from which words and sentences, promiscuously blended by the rotatory motion of a cylinder, were fortuitously taken out for use. And a composer, by toiling at Geminiani's Dictionary of Modulation, by *mechanical operations*, may perhaps light on such detached fragments of harmony, as will suit his key and movement: and thus 'compose music without the least assistance from genius and study.'

In 1752, there appeared a very bad translation of a part of RAMEAU's *Nouveau Système de Musique Théorique*, which was first published at Paris in 1726. But the English version contains only one of four books, of which the original consists, which were afterwards newly arranged and abridged by D'Alembert, in his *Elemens de Musique*; and lastly, in 1760, the whole was newly written by Rameau himself, and published at Paris under the title of *Code de Musique*. But if this last work of that learned and once idolised musician were entirely and well translated, so different are the technica and harmonics used in France from those in every other part of Europe, that it would be found a very insufficient guide to the modern practice of harmony.

ANTONIOTTO's *Treatise on Composition*, 2 vols, folio, which were published by subscription in 1760, was the most ample and important work on the subject, which had appeared in our language and country. However, too many pages of this treatise were bestowed on the *scales*, concerning which his whole first book is chiefly occupied. And the intervals and transpositions of these scales are all the instructions he gives for *melody*. In the second book, indeed, a student may learn to pile notes on notes in polyphonic HARMONY, to the amount of eight, and even sixteen real parts! But this is all confined to one key, and fundamental progression of the base, by ascending and descending 5ths. However, by patient study, much of the mechanical part of music may be learned in this book, which being but awkwardly translated from the Italian in which it was originally written, and much darkened by pedantry and technical jargon, is by no means an alluring book, or sufficiently ample and explicit on *all* the parts of composition. But what *single book* was ever produced, which could unfold *all* the arcana of any art or science? The student who has only books for his masters, must have recourse

to many such guides; and what he is unable to find or comprehend in one, may perhaps be communicated to him by another. It is but justice to say, that *fugue* and *canon* are more amply treated in Antoniotto's work, than in any other that has appeared in our language. But when he tells us, p. 45, that '*fundamental counterpoint* was never hitherto known, and consequently never used,' the treatise by Rameau, mentioned above, confutes him, as do also numerous subsequent treatises of Rameau and his followers and commentators.

HOLDIN'S *Essay towards a rational System of Music*, in small 4to, printed at Glasgow, 1770, is a very ingenious and useful little book, in which a student will find much knowledge of the art, derived both from study and the best authors of the time. This work, which merited our sincere approbation soon after it was published (see our XXXIII^d vol. 1772) was not proposed by the author as a system of practical harmony or composition, but modestly designed as an explanation 'of such particulars as every one ought to be acquainted with, who desires either to *perform music* with propriety and spirit, or hear it with judgment and taste.' *Instrumental music* and *modulation* have since that time made such bold strides, if not *towards perfection*, at least *from former practice*, that, though much may be still learned in this book, yet much will remain to be learnt, by those who read no other on the subject of counterpoint.

In 1771, MORLEY'S celebrated *Introduction* was reprinted, without reforming the old quaint language of the dialogue, explaining the obsolete doctrines, or supplying deficiencies by any thing new. This book is now certainly, by its age and scarcity, become more curious than useful. It exhibits the state of our language and secular music at the latter end of queen Elizabeth's reign. But though the latter was truly barbarous, yet Tallis, Bird, and Morley, were as excellent composers of *church music*, as any part of Europe could then, or perhaps at any other period, boast.

The last publication that bears any affinity to the work before us, was JONES'S (the rev. W.) *Treatise on the Art of Music*, folio, 1784 (see our Review for 1785, vol. LIX.) This work was not professedly published as a treatise on composition, but 'intended (as the author informs us) for a course of lectures PREPARATORY to the practice of thorough-bass and musical composition;' so that, instead of precluding or diminishing the utility of the essay of Mr. Kellmann (a regular bred and studious professor), it seems to call for some such work, as a necessary supplement and successor to that of our reverend and ingenious dilettante.

We should now gladly enter on a minute analysis of the work

work before us, had we leisure and space ; but we have so far extended our preface, that we must be very short in our remarks. Yet, when we look at the book,—a formidable folio ! there is a certain dignity in its appearance, which demands a respect and attention to which a diminutive duodecimo can have little claim. But alas ! folios seem to have lost their favour in the *republic* of letters, as much as the nobility of a neighbouring nation have their rank in the state ! We must, however, just give a sketch of the contents of that part of this work, which seemed chiefly wanted in our language for the use of our young students in composition, who have not the means of access to a good master, or leisure to read many books. The *scales*, in all the different genera, are to be found in almost every treatise on music, as well as the description and enumeration of *concord*s and *discord*s ; but their use in harmony and melody has, perhaps, not been more amply detailed in the text, and explained in the plates before, in any book that has come to our knowledge. *Chords* likewise, in accompaniment, are here well explained and accurately represented. But the most important chapters in the work seem those on *modulation*, simple and double *counterpoint*, *imitation*, *variation*, and *fancy* or extempore playing. These are laboured with uncommon diligence and success, particularly *double-counterpoint*, which we do not recollect to have seen so fully treated in any other book. The knowledge of this contrivance will greatly facilitate the construction of canons and fugues. Our author will be thought, perhaps, to have done but little in explaining the ecclesiastical modes or tones of *canto fermo* ; but being a protestant, he is probably less conversant in these matters than such writers as Fux, Antoniotto, Padre Martini, and others, brought up catholics, and accustomed to compose for the Romish church.

Some curious fragments from great masters, and others by the author that are very ingenious, with several excellent German hymns, admirably enriched with harmony, have been inserted, in illustration of the doctrines laid down ; and we can venture, on the whole, to recommend this as a very curious and useful work. The author, being a German, could not always avoid foreign idioms in writing English ; but he has never used them to an unintelligible degree. And the plates, which are numerous and well engraved, will illuminate the text sufficiently, whenever darkness or doubts may arise.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICAL.

Sketch on the Causes of the Advance and Decline of Nations; with Strictures on Systems of Finance, particularly applied to those of France and Great Britain. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Sewed. Johnson. 1795.

THE chief positions established by this author, who, in general, follows the systems of Smith and Turgot, though not servilely, are these:—No society being confined, in its consumption, to its own productions, with part of which it purchases the produce of others, a quantity of commodities becomes necessary, sufficient for consumption, until those produced in foreign countries can be procured; although sugar be purchased with part of the produce of England, yet sugar does not immediately follow the production of those goods with which it is purchased. There must, therefore, be not only commodities sufficient for the consumption of those employed on these goods, but a quantity of sugar sufficient for consumption, until more can be procured. It is impossible for an increase of population to take place, unless labour be employed in agriculture and the useful manufactures. But as a town may increase in population without agriculture, because of its connection with the country in its neighbourhood; so may a society, even although employed in the production of articles of luxury, provided these articles are sent to others for the purchase of the produce of agriculture; and so may a society be stationary, even though employed in agriculture, should it purchase with its produce articles of luxury. This points out the relation in which different countries, or parts of the same country, may stand to each other. The general proposition is still, however, true, that agriculture and the useful manufactures must be attended to, in order to allow an increase of people. The increase of men in a savage state is limited by the spontaneous produce of the soil; in civilised society, by the proportion of labour usefully employed. Nature in the one case, man in the other, is the nurse of the rising generation. When paper is introduced into circulation, there is a relation established between it and the circulating medium, but not between paper and commodities; and by coming into circulation, and commanding goods as well as the medium, it necessarily reduces its value. If produced within the society, the employment of a smaller quantity of labour and stock will be found sufficient; if procured from another, people will be apt to purchase goods cheaper in other countries; a quantity, therefore, will be carried out, and goods carried in, or its importation for some time prevented, by this reduction in its value. Although the emission of paper gives the command of a greater proportion of the productions to certain people, than they are entitled to,—yet the saving which it occasions, must be equal to it: this proportion

portion cannot exceed the quantity of goods, in the one case carried out, or which the emission prevents being carried out,—nor, in the other, the additional quantity produced, in consequence of less labour and stock being employed in the production of the medium. The stock on which the employment of labour depends, is augmented nearly the amount of the paper in circulation.

The only other proposition we shall quote, respects the lower orders. He proves, that in order that a society shall advance in population and wealth, great wages must be given to the lower orders, which supposes economy amongst the others, and the employment of stock and labour in agriculture, and the useful manufactures; from great wages arises an increase in the population, and from the increased population, a greater production. The increase of stock always preceding, and being always followed by, an increase of people; for as no increase of people can take place, unless preceded by an increase of stock; so no further increase of stock can take place, unless followed by that of people. The productions arising from the increased population, enter the hands of the owners of stock, in place of those which had been advanced, as wages, rent, and for their own consumption; and what remains, after again advancing rent, and the ordinary wages to the same number of workmen, is profit; part of which may be consumed, part give employment to the additional number of workmen, which always follows high wages, and part may go to the augmentation of mercantile stock.

The reader will find these subjects amply illustrated in the body of the work. The author has successfully pointed out such errors in Dr. Smith's work, as interfered with his own; but he has not attained an engaging manner of writing upon subjects, in themselves dry and unentertaining. His style is generally harsh, and often has the appearance of a bad translation. He has thought attentively, however, upon his subject; and his work is a valuable addition to the science of general economy.

A Little Plain English, addressed to the People of the United States, on the Treaty negotiated with his Britannic Majesty, and on the Conduct of the President relative thereto; in Answer to 'The Letters of Franklin.' With a Supplement, containing an Account of the Turbulent and Factionous Proceedings of the Opposers of the Treaty. By Peter Porcupine, Author of Observations on Dr. Priestley's Emigration to America, A Bone to Gnaw for the Democrats, &c. &c. Philadelphia, printed: London, re-printed. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1796.

Mr. Porcupine having avowed himself the author of '*Observations on Dr. Priestley's Emigration*,' we are ready to retract the suspicion thrown out in our account of that pamphlet; (Crit. Rev. Vol. XIII. p. 104. New Arr.) We are happy to find that this country has the disgrace only of republication. The present pamphlet does

'no discredit to the talents and temper of its author.' It is alike virulent, abusive, and unfounded in assertion. With the subject, indeed, he is better acquainted; and he has with some success vindicated the conduct of the president, but at the expense of that adherence to truth and decency, which a writer of a liberal and candid mind would wish to preserve.

A Second Letter to H. Dawson, Esq. Member of Parliament for the County of York. By the Rev. William Lippscomb, Rector of Welbury, in Yorkshire. Author of the 'Case of the War considered.' 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett. 1795.

The '*Case of the War considered*,' was reviewed in Vol. XI. p. 226, New Arr. where we made a favourable report of the author's principles in opposing the war. In this present letter, which is dated Feb. 5, 1795, he shifts his ground, and thinks *that moment* the least proper for proposing peace, however desirable peace might appear to him. He says, 'that France has exerted for almost five years, every nerve to extort, amid the increasing wants of her people, wherewith to support the millions that have defended her territory; and that every village, in every province, hath been plundered, and is now *almost entirely exhausted*, to supply the armies on her frontiers, is a well known truth, and universally admitted!' Alas! another Feb. 5 has intervened; and what becomes of this *well-known* truth? It is a misfortune for many political pamphlets, that we have not room to review them the moment they are published. After a few weeks, their 'conclusive reasoning,' and 'undoubted facts,' are as a *tale that is told!*

The Prosperity of Great Britain, compared with the State of France, her Conquests, and Allies. Addressed principally to the Freeholders, Farmers, and Artificers of Great Britain, and particularly to those of the County of Salop. By Rowland Hunt, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. 1796.

A short extract from the Preface to this pamphlet will give our readers an idea of its political character—

'The following sheets contain the subjects of various communications, since the month of January 1793; when the industry of sedition began to make experiments in my neighbourhood, on the temper and disposition of the inhabitants. They immediately associated: their loyal zeal and good conduct put an end to the hopes of the discontented in this quarter; and the uniform performance of their duties of every kind, has not only been a support to the cause of legal order and liberty; but their mutual attention to each other, when in a state of anxiety from the price of corn, has been the best proof of their constitutional patriotism.' p. v.

The rest of the observations in Mr. Hunt's production perfectly
correct.

corresponds with the design hinted in the Preface, namely, that of supporting and extending the experiment of alarm,—an experiment which the administration of the country have succeeded in trying, at the expense of much public and private uneasiness.

This popular delusion could, however, from its nature, have no more than a temporary prevalence; and such publications as the present contain no intrinsic protection from an ephemeral sympathy of existence.

Observations on the present High Price of Corn, with Hints on the Cultivation of Waste Lands. By a Farmer. 8vo. 1s. Matthews. 1795.

The author of this very sensible pamphlet states, that the remarks it contains were originally produced in a letter to a friend, in answer to the following inquiries—

“Is the present advanced price of grain occasioned by adventitious circumstances only? Or is it influenced by permanent causes, which must continue to operate, although contingent circumstances should be less calamitous than at present?” p. 5.

In pursuing the discussion of these queries, the reflections of the author are truly judicious and philanthropic. For the gratification of our readers, we shall make an extract—

‘The hostile state of Europe together with its restraint on tillage, a constant concomitant on the miseries of war, has occasioned the most wanton wastes; this is doubtless one cause of the present scarcity, for as humanity is not the *first* concern of the policy belonging to the government of nations, the probability of famine in a neighbouring kingdom has unhappily suggested the idea of exerting every possible device to realize it, which of necessity must in a measure produce the like effects among ourselves, of which we now so justly complain. For ourselves or neighbours a certain quantity only is annually grown and generally apportioned to the regular consumption; by whatever means this quantity is lessened, it is a loss to the whole:—for such is the natural operation of commerce, that the abundant market will be drained to supply the necessitous, and that in defiance of every energy of state-policy.

‘Add to this, that all wars produce an increased consumption: at the present period there cannot be less than three millions in the hostile service of the belligerent powers, armies and navies included; these three millions are daily consuming the supply of nine millions employed in peaceful industry; exclusive of the waste occasioned by quantities destroyed by being ill-stored, and the risk in navigating from place to place.’ p. 6.

The foregoing observations are the offspring of a mind at once modest and intelligent: we hope, however, that the calamity of
famine

famine no longer seriously threatens this country,—that the return of peace will be accelerated, and that it will bring with it more immediate and permanent blessings than even the benevolent writer of the production before us appears to imagine.

It is matter of regret, that, while projects of eternal hostility are so earnestly pursued, the grand objects of internal policy are neglected to a degree that must astonish and grieve every well-wisher to his country.—Some of the concluding remarks of this publication are, in this important view, peculiarly impressive—

‘ When the situation of any country is such, as to induce a great weight of property and active industry to emigrate, it is a situation truly alarming: and when the apprehensions of misery rise to a certain height, no effort of policy by which it may be opposed will be sufficient to retain men under the fear of impending wretchedness, if any prospect open for escape. But could we hope against fact, we do not better the ground, for should a preventative be found, the result will be equally fraught with calamity; when no possibility of evading the weight of woes presents, we may fear and must feel the consequences, but I forbear to name them. Should the hand of power be equal to repel the dreaded issue, it presents effects less shocking in speculation, but not less ruinous in their consequences. The spirit of the labouring poor wormed out by constant disappointment and adversity, must sink in hopeless despair, their strength must diminish by an impoverished and scanty diet, population must decline, and the feeble exertions excited will fail to produce that portion of effective labour which props a sinking state and is the life of its mighty exertions.—This description is not merely imaginary; it is founded on striking facts. I was lately called upon to use arguments against a proposed combination of the workmen in an extensive manufactory, who urged that with the most active exertions they had no hope of escaping wretchedness and want; and as misery must be their portion, they would have it without labour and linger out their miserable existence in indolence on parish pay. Without recurring to this fact the conclusion is obvious; for as extra exertions call for additional supplies to restore the waste of nature, when these supplies are not attainable, the exertions must necessarily cease. My own labourers inform me, that they regularly allow themselves 6d. per day more for sustenance in task work than in daily labour; and if additional support be wanting to this conclusion, we have examples to confirm it.—Spain, Portugal, and Italy, once so formidable in power and active in their exertions, by an oppressive policy, have diminished the means of subsistence, consequently reduced population, enfeebled their active operations, and sunk their consequence among the nations. The want of needful support drives their labouring poor to recruit by sleep the wastes of nature; they have usually sixteen hours out of twenty-four for this refreshment, and a British labourer

labourer well fed is equal in effective exertion to four of them. Hence their inferiority in naval and military operations, and hence also the cause of our superiority; but this knowledge is not consolatory.—Our fleets and our armies are supplied from the mass of the labouring poor; if they diminish and degenerate, our national consequence cannot long be supported.’ P. 47.

The Doctrine of Equality of Rank and Condition examined and supported on the Authority of the New Testament, and on the Principles of Reason and Benevolence. By James Pilkington. 8:0. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1795.

The divine author, and the early propagators of our religion, found nothing more hard to combat than the love of riches. Many parables and precepts were therefore directed against this grand obstruction to the reception of the mild and benevolent religion of Jesus; and volumes might be written to prove the many evils which, in all ages of the world, in all societies and states, have arisen from avarice. But whether the cure of these evils would be an equality of rank and condition, is a matter which cannot be determined *a priori*. Reasoning, the best reasoning, that which is founded on experience, is against it. We know of no society of equality; the quakers, mentioned by our author, come the nearest to such a society: yet how great are the differences of *fortune* among them! Our author will not deny that although the Christian religion has not produced all the good that might have been expected from it, yet it has meliorated the state of society wherever it has been propagated, but it has no where produced an equality of rank and condition: on the contrary, we might argue from many of the passages he produces, that the existence of riches and poverty are recognised in scripture as a part of the divine dispensation. If the rich according to him are proud, ambitious, and destitute of religious principle, the gospel is preached to them in vain; and whence then are we to expect its effects? It is in vain to say to the rich that they *ought* to share their wealth with the poor:—they will not listen to such advice. Are we then to take from them their riches by force? Where does the Christian religion justify a measure of that kind?

Far as we are disposed from justifying the conduct of many rich men, we think Mr. Pilkington ought to have been more particular in specifying the various means by which riches are acquired. If a man by his ingenuity has invented an art by which many hundreds earn their bread, who were before destitute, and becomes rich while he is preventing others from remaining poor,—is he to be confounded with stock-jobbers,—dealers in loans and contracts,—and other state-gamblers, falsely called merchants?—Mr. Pilkington might also have considered the effect of commerce in improving the state of society, in bringing distant nations more into friendship and

harmony one with another, and (to a certain degree) in diffusing the blessings of religion and knowledge over benighted climes; and even when he has accumulated all the vices which accompany a desire of being rich, might he not have considered, whether *upon the whole* most good or evil has been occasioned by this passion?

The pamphlet, however, is in general candid, and written, we believe, with no design to disturb the peace of society. The handle that will, however, be made of it, by the enemies of reformation in every shape, makes us wish that the publication of it had been deferred to the time when men shall be less disposed to misinterpret the honest labours of the philosopher and the christian.

Considerations addressed to the French Bishops and Clergy now residing in England. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett. 1796.

The considerations proposed to the French bishops and clergy, should they be permitted to return to their country, consist chiefly in exhorting them to acquire a spirit more accommodating to the simplicity of the christian religion, and discard all matters in their catholic forms, which militate with the instruction of their people. The beginning, and much the greater part of the pamphlet, contains an account of the state of morality and religion in France, before the period of the revolution,—the causes of that depraved state,—and an attempt to prove that the depravity of the French nation, since the period of the revolution, was the consequence of its preceding irreligion. In this we consider our author as having completely succeeded; and we earnestly recommend this part of the pamphlet to the attention of the public in general. Too long have the people of this country been deceived with the notion that the crimes which have been committed in France since the revolution, were the effect of that revolution. This delusion, we know, has been artfully propagated by those who could not themselves be deceived. A man must be miserably ignorant of human nature, who can for a moment suppose that any change in the form of a government will of itself transform peaceable citizens into unrelenting savages. Yet this paradox has been propagated with success in a nation of thinking men:—and what has been the consequence?

‘I will only observe,’ says our author, ‘that the general outcry raised against French principles, (and, under that cover, I rather fear, against the principles of liberty itself) that they have caused more torrents of blood to flow, than any madness which had before infatuated nations, is the outcry of ignorance, unversed in the history of man. The sword of superstition, in the crusades and in its other achievements, destroyed of the human race what, in a fair calculation against the blood of France, would bear to it the proportion of thousands to units. And these thousands were butchered, under the blasphemous pretence of vindicating the ho-

mour of heaven! Besides, under what plea of reason is it, that the lives of all whom this war has slain should be given to France? Let each of the belligerent powers take to themselves their own proportion, and leave to justice the critical settlement of the blood-stained balance.' P. 61.

An Address to the Electors of Great Britain. 8vo. 6d. Johnson. 1796.

This sensible little pamphlet, though more immediately applicable to the time previous to the electing of a new parliament, contains sentiments, which at all times ought to be impressed on the consciences of electors and representatives in parliament. The following quotations we give as specimens of its contents—

'Men, who have frequently absented themselves from their duty in parliament, when great and important questions were agitated there, ought not to be again returned. Nor ought any man to be elected, for any part of the kingdom, who voted in support of the two late bills, called Mr. Pitt's and Lord Grenville's bills. Indeed, no man can have a reasonable claim to your suffrages, who did not attend in his place to oppose those bills. A desertion of the interests of his constituents, on such an occasion, ought to be considered as a flagrant violation of his duty as a representative.

'From the moment that those bills passed, England was degraded, and the inhabitants of it had no longer any just claim to be ranked among free nations. To consider any country as a free country, in which an hundred persons cannot legally meet, to consider whether they are aggrieved, or whether they shall even petition the legislature, without the consent of magistrates appointed by the crown, is perfectly absurd. It is certain, that more liberty was enjoyed, by law, in the reign of James the Second, than the people of this country have been in possession of, since the passing of these bills. If this statement be true, and I will venture to affirm, that no man in the kingdom can justly controvert it, it becomes your representatives very seriously to consider, whether those purposes have been answered, for which the revolution was effected, and for which the princes of the house of Hanover have been raised to the throne of these kingdoms.' P. 8.

Our author closes his pamphlet in the following manner—

'The part which Great Britain has taken, respecting the revolution in France, will be recorded to its dishonour, so long as any history in Europe shall remain. It ill became the people of England to exhaust their blood, and their treasures, in support of German despots, or despots of any other nation. This could not have happened, if the people had been possessed of a virtuous, independent,

and enlightened parliament. As to the idea which was thrown out, that the war was carried on for the preservation of religion, and of social order, this was a species of contemptible jargon, fit only to be addressed to the retainers of the court, and to persons of the meanest understanding. Instruct your members, therefore, to use their most assiduous endeavours to restore the blessings of peace, and to put a final termination to a war, disgraceful and impolitic in its commencement, and destructive in its consequences.' P. 14.

A Disclosure of Parochial Abuse, Artifice, and Peculation, in the Town of Manchester; which have been the Means of burthening the Inhabitants with the present enormous Parish Rates; with other existing Impositions of Office, in a Variety of Facts, exhibiting the Cruel and Inhuman Conduct of the Hireling Officers of the Town, towards the Poor. To which is added, a Book of County Rates, shewing the exact Proportion of every Hundred in this County, and of every Township in the Hundred of Salford. By Thomas Battye. 8vo. 2s. Thomson. Manchester. 1796.

From the report of a committee of the house of commons, appointed to inspect and consider the returns of overseers, relative to the state of the poor, in the year 1787, it appears that the whole sum raised in England, taken upon a medium calculation on sums raised in the years 1783, 1784, and 1785, was 2,100,587l. and that the net money applied to the use of the poor, and their immediate relief, was only 1,496,129l. The rest of the money raised goes in parish entertainments, overseers' expenses, and law suits! So great are the evils attending the present way of supporting the poor, that many, not without reason, have insisted, the poor rates, at all events, ought to be abolished, and some other mode adopted, more suited to the cases of the poor, and less subject to peculation.

The present very interesting pamphlet shows how grievously a parish may be imposed on, through overseers not keeping their accounts fairly, and not producing them for public inspection. Their statements ought to be kept as clear as those of commercial houses, and published annually; impositions then would be easily detected. Many respectable ley-payers of the town of Manchester, it seems, have expressed a desire of having such a yearly report; but this, for *weighty reasons*, has not been complied with.

The present pamphlet, it is hoped, will open the eyes of the people of Manchester, and lead them to pursue such measures as will prevent future impositions and peculations. It does truly exhibit, as the title-page professes, cruel and inhuman conduct of hireling officers;—and the author is justly entitled to the thanks of his townsmen and the public.

A Letter to Bryan Edwards, Esq. containing Observations on some Passages of his History of the West Indies. 4to. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1795.

These passages relate to the slave trade. In our review of Mr. Edwards's History, we made several remarks on the defence he sets up for that trade. Yet, although we allowed him to be the best and most candid advocate that has yet appeared, we agree with the present author, that all his arguments are reducible to a mere question of policy. The value and importance of the West India islands are placed against every other consideration; and while it shall remain the opinion of the legislature that we must not lose sight of the interest we possess in the islands, it will be a waste of time to argue the point as men and christians. The writer of this letter (Mr. Preston of Dublin) follows Mr. Edwards closely through all his details, and vindicates the measure of abolition with ability and perspicuity. The subject has been so often before the public, that it would be unreasonable to expect the advancement of any thing new; but the influence of such a writer as Mr. Edwards certainly demanded a renewal of those arguments, before which we are persuaded this infamous traffic must one day fall.

Hard Measure, or, a real Statement of Facts, in a Letter to the Burgesses, and Freemen Burgesses of the Town of Shrewsbury. With a few Expostrulations and Remarks addressed to the new Candidate the Honourable William Hill. Occasioned by the very peculiar and unwarrantable Manner, in which he has repeatedly introduced the Name of Sir Richard Hill, into his late printed Addresses. By Sir Richard Hill, Bart. The Second Edition. 8vo. 6d. Stockdale. 1796.

A Supplement to the second Edition of Hard Measure, &c. By Sir Richard Hill, Bart. 8vo. 3d. Stockdale. 1796.

Sir Richard Hill in this narrative holds himself forth as the friend of 'independence,' and the determined opposer of 'aristocratic influence.' It is no unusual thing for our senators to be one thing in the boroughs or counties they represent, and another within the walls of St. Stephen's chapel. Whether this be the case or not, with regard to the worthy baronet, let the lists of those who have virtuously opposed the present corrupt and devastating system declare. With regard to the subject in dispute, we shall say very little. It appears that Mr. William Hill has taken a fancy to the seat in the parliament, now occupied by his 'near relation,' Mr. John Hill, who having enjoyed it pretty long, feels no inclination, by surrendering his honours, 'to gratify (as his advocate and supporter sir Richard says) the high ambition of an aspiring youth.' How this election squabble will terminate, we know not: nor can we think the public good at all considered by any of the parties concerned in it.

P O E T I C A L.

Telesiai: the Final Clse, a Poem. In Six Parts. By David Bradberry. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons.

Poetry, it is thought by many, ought to go a *little* beyond common sense to be in perfection; but this is a matter of great nicety; and the author of—what is the strange title? seems to us to have gone something beyond the mark. The awful scenes of a judgment day have kindled the sublime imaginations of painters and poets; but though a subject infinitely sublime, it is one which, for obvious reasons, it is not easy to treat without falling into rant or impropriety. Young has, in his *Last Day*, the most sublime and the most absurd passages. If the poem in question has any of the former, it is owing to the scripture images, which the choice of the subject naturally suggests; for the latter, the author himself must be answerable. Of this nature is the idea of giving a *strong emetic* to hell, to oblige her to throw up all the spirits confined in her dungeons,—of having bills of credit drawn upon heaven—

‘With bills of credit unconfined
I mount, and leave the globe behind.’

He should have told us at what spiritual banking-house these bills are accepted.

In one place the author thus sarcastically addresses his infernal majesty—

‘Satan horrific! Magor Missabib!
Mute, though his lying tongue was once so glib.’

It is easy to perceive, to what class of readers this poem properly belongs; and with them we shall leave it.

Poems and Fugitive Pieces, by Eliza. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1796.

Many of these poems were originally published in the *Star*, and have drawn forth, in the same paper, complimentary answers and addresses, which, with a reciprocation of compliment to their respective authors, are again inserted along with the poems; a species of literary intercourse, often more delightful to the parties, than to the phlegmatic reader. The poems of Eliza, though not calculated to gratify that class of readers who look for the finished beauties of correct versification, have the charm of moral sentiment, and occasionally of elegant description.

The *Lines written on the Anniversary of a Mother's Death*, and those to *A Friend in a Sick Chamber*, are pleasing, from the tender strokes of real pathos which they contain.

The pieces under the title of *Comic Poetry* are very trifling indeed.

Miscellaneous Poems, by Mrs. J. Pilkington. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1796.

This lady professes to be afraid of the reviewers. We can assure her we are equally afraid of her; for nothing is more unpleasant to our feelings than to be obliged to scrutinise with a critic eye, and, in the quality of caterers for the public, to speak in terms of disapprobation of those innocent and extemporaneous effusions which have, perhaps, in some friendly circle, obtained the approbation of partial hearers, willing to be pleased, and interested in every copy of verses by the little occasional events on which it is founded, and to which they have been themselves either witnesses or parties. To all who have thus acquired a degree of local celebrity, and are esteemed by their friends and visitors, *very pretty geniusses*, and easy writers, we would apply the line—

O fortunatos nimium, sua si bona norint !

Woe unto them if they quit those calm seas and flattering gales, to have their little skiff tost upon the stormy ocean. In short, let them beware of the *press*, as the bane of their reputation. Mrs. Pilkington will not, we hope, be angry with us for applying these observations to the volumes before us, as the following is the modest opinion she expresses of her own powers—

‘ And alas ! I’ve no hope that Apollo’s fam’d tree
Will adorn such a bit of a poet as me ;
Besides, tho’ I sometimes on Pegasus rode,
I never yet reach’d the nine Muses abode ;
For when I arrived at the foot of the hill,
My horse at that instant stood perfectly still.
But as I had heard that the famed Grecian spring,
Which teaches a poet in numbers to sing,
First rose from a stroke of Old Peg on the mountain,
Which open’d a passage, and out sprang the fountain,
I tried to provoke him to kick on the ground,
But alas ! my dear brother, no fountain I found !’

Vol. i. p. 70.

Should the lady be disposed to publish again, we beg leave, however, to assure her, that *Eliza* and *wiser*, which twice occur together, cannot possibly be admitted as rhyme; and that *am-bi-out*, read as three syllables, makes a line very languid. In the following line—

‘ And lose the *exhale* of its fragrant power—’

a verb is unjustifiably turned into a noun, and the accent placed wrong. The subjects of these poems are familiar, and the sentiments, it is but justice to say, such as no young mind can receive any hurt from.

Poems of various Kinds. By Edward Hamley, Fellow of New College. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1796.

Part of this publication consists of *Sonnets*, the second edition corrected; as they have been already before the public, they require no further notice; the other poems are miscellaneous, but all of the serious, moral, and sentimental kind; and among them are *translations* from Klopstock, Haller, and the *Flight of Erminia*, from Tasso. As Mr. Hamley professes not to aim at the higher wreath of poetry, but confines his pretensions to ‘amuse a void and countless hour,’ he may rest assured that his modest expectations cannot fail of being amply gratified; for his poems are flowing, correct, and harmonious: and though they do not possess much originality, they show an elegance of mind, and liberality of sentiment, which will cause them to be read with pleasure by congenial minds. The scenery of the descriptive part is chiefly taken from the rocks of Cornwall, the author’s native county.

The following specimen will give a sufficient idea, both of the turn of sentiment, and of the poetry; it is taken from a poem on Roche Rock in Cornwall—

- ‘ To yon huge rock, that age and storm defies,
As o’er Cornubia’s heathy back they haste,
Admiring wand’rers turn with curious eyes,
And mark its bulk amid the frowning waste.
- ‘ High on its beetling top, with weeds o’ergrown,
His cold damp cell a hermit rais’d in air,
His drink the spring, his bed the naked stone,
And gave his years to penance and to pray’r.
- ‘ There to his void and aching soul confin’d,
He listen’d to the sea-bird’s piercing cries,
The tide’s wild roaring, and the wrecking wind,
And watch’d the sun’s slow journey thro’ the skies.
- ‘ The wakeful mem’ry of life’s chearful stage
Oft chill’d religion’s faint and dying flame;
Ev’n as he trac’d the legend’s pictur’d page,
To steal his thoughts from heav’n the tempter came.
- ‘ Still ’mid the lonesome wild, whence pleasures fly,
Imperious nature’s cries the heart alarm,
Warm recollection pours the deep-felt sigh,
And life’s sweet charities ev’n there must charm.
- ‘ Alike from virtue and from vice he fled,
Lost to the world as in the silent grave,
Save when his needy hand a bit of bread,
A cup of water to the pilgrim gave.

- ‘ Did heav’n, in kind regard to feeble man,
 Pour down his various bounties from above,
 And give, to cheer his short and mingled span,
 The sweets of friendship and the joys of love;
 ‘ That he, a prey to voluntary woe,
 ‘ Midst cold austerities should drag his life,
 Turn fullen from the plenteous feast, nor know
 Th’ endearing names of children, father, wife?’ P. 5.

Poetic Trifles. 8vo. 2s. Dilly. 1796.

There is a command of language exhibited in these poems, which looks as if the author might write something more finished, if he would give himself sufficient trouble. The subject of the first, *Ode to the Ixalsalya*, is at least new; but the strain of it is obscure and exaggerated; and he speaks of the Indian fire-fly, as if he supposed its lambent light could actually set fire to the woods. The following stanzas, describing this ‘fly of Assyria,’ the same mentioned in Isaiah and by Bruce, are among the most descriptive; but it is not justifiable to speak of the fly in the abstract, and therefore in the singular number, and then to speak of *its myriads*—

- ‘ O thou, whose livid wings of gauze,
 While pointed bristles arm thy jaws,
 Are mid thy myriads spread;
 Strait, at their rattling, as the car
 Heard from the mountain-tops afar,
 The frenzied herds snort round, and fly thy horfelike
 head.

- Appal’d, the fierce rhinoceros stands,
 And vainly notes the distant sands,
 Then hails his tawny foe:
 In union, by the water’s edge,
 They urge their way, thro’ matted sedge,
 And roll their bulky limbs, where brooks the fen o’er-
 flow.’ P. 5.

The *Swiss scene*, and the *Scotch scene*, are good sketches. *Dun-*
laved begins with spirit—

- ‘ The beamless sun went down the sky,
 And, sinking as a ball of blood,
 Ting’d with a deep funereal dye,
 Thro’ fullen mists, the murky wood.’ P. 11.

But there is nothing in the occasion to support the solemnity of it.—Some other miscellaneous copies of verses require no particular notice. By far the greater part of the volume is taken up by the *Flight of Montauban*, in mock heroic, which, to those who know nothing of the story, is totally without a meaning.

RELIGIOUS.

R E L I G I O U S.

A General and Connected View of the Prophecies relating to the Times of the Gentiles, delivered by our Blessed Saviour, the Prophet Daniel, and the Apostles Paul and John; with a brief Account of their Accomplishment to the present Age, supported by the most unexceptionable Testimony of History. By the Rev. E. W. Whitaker, Rector of St. Mildred's, and All Saints, Canterbury. 12mo. 3s. Rivingtons. 1795.

The luminous historian of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire was accustomed in his life-time to receive from the clergy many hard words, and much ill treatment. His death, it is to be hoped, has softened the resentment of those, who, from some misconceived or really erroneous passages in his work, entertained prejudices against the author, and the whole of his history; and by the present publication it is evident, that one person has found out the way of making the poison its own antidote, and of transferring, from the pages which are idly supposed by many to contain a confutation of christianity, some of the strongest arguments in its favour.

Mr. Whitaker has viewed the performance of Mr. Gibbon in its proper light. It is indeed a masterly performance, and, notwithstanding the innumerable defects in its style, contains a variety of splendid passages, calculated to make the strongest impression on the reader. Its advocates cry it up as unanswerable; christianity, they say, has been sapped to its utmost foundations, and time only is requisite to level it with the ground. What then can be better than to prove, from the redoubtable historian himself, that his work is really nothing else than a developement of those prophecies in scripture, which he is supposed to despise; and that, whatever his intentions may have been, his language in many places might seem to have been dictated by the same spirit which influenced the pen of an evangelist.

This is the design of the author now before us: and we must regret that he did not explain it in fuller terms in his title-page. In the title-page he tells us, that the accomplishment of the prophecies to the present age is in his book supported 'by the most unexceptionable testimony of history.' Now this is both too great a compliment to Mr. Gibbon, and it weakens the effect it is intended to produce. Had he said, 'supported by the testimony of the author of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire,' he would not only have described accurately his book, but he might have excited many persons, led away by the specious misrepresentations of the historian, to compare together his unsophisticated opinions with those of revelation.

As we have thus taken notice of the title-page, we must detain our reader with a slight remark on the motto—

‘ They are written for our admonition, upon whom the ends of the world are come.’

In the times of the apostles, this verse contained a very important truth. The ends of the age, that is, the end of the Jewish, and the beginning of the Christian dispensation, might be really said to be upon them. The Jewish dispensation was within a few years of its close, and the Christian dispensation had been a few years only in existence. But how can this apply, though so frequently repeated in this and several preceding centuries, to the believers in christianity, for the last sixteen hundred years? and we see no reason to presume, either from the scriptures, or the apparent circumstances of the world, that the end of it should be accomplished in the present generation.

In the interpretation of most of the prophecies, our author acquiesces with the generally received opinions; at times he advances his own positions, and they deserve attention. Many of the prophetic parts of scripture must, till the time of their completion, remain in obscurity: but when the impartial infidel compares together, as he ought, the language of revelation with that of his favourite historian, he must be struck with a coincidence, for which he cannot account, without giving up his fanciful opinions. If it were probable in this age that many infidels would act impartially, we should recommend them to give this small volume a perusal: but if they will not do it, we can recommend it to Christians as a useful appendix to Mr. Gibbon's history.

Regal Rights consistent with National Liberties. A Sermon, preached at St. Mary's, Oxford, on Sunday, June 21, 1795. To which is subjoined an Appendix, containing Extracts from the Papers, &c. presented to the House of Commons by Mr. Secretary Dundas, in 1794. With a few suitable Observations. By W. Hawkins, A. M. Prebendary of Wells, and Vicar of Whitechurch, Dorset. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1795.

From Proverbs xlv. 21, Mr. Hawkins deduces the divine appointment of monarchy, and monarchical dignity, and has therefore little difficulty in proving that *regal rights* make an essential part of a monarchical constitution. But we see no connection betwixt the rights due to a sovereign, and the passionate and very ill-written invective against reformers, which makes up the greater part of this sermon. Mr. Hawkins allows the existence of grievances: and what, we would ask, are grievances, that they should be touched with so delicate a hand? Are they beings endued with the power of removing themselves; or, if they are not, where is the harm in any individual, or number of individuals, attempting to remove them? Let but the existence of political grievances be admitted; and the removal of them from that moment becomes a duty fit for every time and place,—except, perhaps, the pulpit.

The Millennium; or Latter Day Glory: a Sermon. By William Moore, Minister of Meeting House Yard, Red Cross Street. 8vo. 1s. Chapman. 1796.

Though there is much of rhapsody in this discourse, and the preacher entered into too wide a field for the complete satisfaction of the hearers or readers,—there are so many excellent sentiments on religious liberty, that we think his hearers did not go away unedified. The orthodoxy of the preacher cannot be doubted: yet, in labouring to establish his point, he runs incautiously into an error which every man, acquainted with religious controversy, studiously avoids. ‘We do not attempt,’ says he, ‘to explain how one can be three, and three one,—we only believe the fact, because it is revealed; without explanation, because the scriptures do not explain.’ Now three cannot be one, nor one three; the Trinitarians never assert such an absurdity; and the great contest is, to prevent this absurdity from being fastened upon them. In another place Great Britain is called ‘a little outcast island,’ from the author’s ignorance of geography, which would have taught him, that there are only two larger islands in the world. But notwithstanding these and several other inaccuracies, which may be easily corrected, we shall recommend to the author to persist in his cause, and to have in view, not the mere delivery of a sermon in public, but that correctness of style, language, and sentiment, which will please the judicious reader in the closet.

Sermons on various Subjects, by the late Rev. Thomas Toller. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Robinsons. 1796.

These sermons are published by the son, as a tribute of respect to his father’s memory; and they will be acceptable to the friends of the deceased. To the public at large they do not present themselves with very high credentials. They are plain discourses, without any great attempts at elegance of style or language; there is not much originality in the conception: nor are any difficult passages in scripture elucidated. The arguments for the perpetuity of the Lord’s supper will hardly make an impression upon its opponents;—the encomiums on the political constitution of the country seem out of place in the pulpit;—the preacher dwells much more on popery than was necessary, and seems to have been very little acquainted with the real state of the papists in this island. We find by one discourse, On the Death of a Young Man, that he had his notion, that the pious went immediately upon their death into the mansions of the blessed; and from another, that the dead shall embrace each other in ‘yonder world with mutual transport and congratulations.’ But though we do not find in these discourses any traces of deep thought, sound erudition, cultivated taste, the pathetic, or the sublime,—to those who knew him, they ‘will be an interesting memorial of his pious labours,’ which were, we doubt not, usefully employed during the whole of his earthly ministry.

A Word

A Word of Comfort to the Poor, in their present Necessity: a Sermon, preached in the Parish-Church of Wauslead, in the County of Essex, on Sunday, July 19, 1795, by the Rev. Samuel Giffé, D. D. F. R. S. &c. 8vo. 6d. Rivingtons. 1795.

This discourse, which is modest, pious, and sensible, is not ill calculated to smoothe the brow of poverty and care, by holding forth the best comforts which the best of all religious systems can administer,—and to restrain the poor from using any unjustifiable means of obtaining relief. Such are the intentions of the author, who gives the profits of his labours to the service of the poor. We cannot, however, think with him, that it is absurd to blame the legislature: the whole blame does certainly not rest with them; but it is not absurd to suppose, that the heavy taxes upon each article in a shop or warehouse may find their way into a corn-field, and that the produce of these taxes have not been employed on objects connected with the welfare of the community.

Address to the Loyal Leicester Volunteer Infantry, at the Presentation of their Colours, in the Parish Church of St. Martin, Leicester, October 19, 1795. To which is annexed the Prayer used on that Occasion. By Thomas Robinson, M. A. Chaplain. 8vo. 6d. Brown, Leicester. 1796.

This address is eloquent, and does some credit to the talents of the author. Such addresses, nevertheless, do not appear to us so becoming the pulpit, as Mr. Robinson seems to think. He deplores the miseries of war in appropriate language: but while we rush into war without a clear and explicit motive, without an urgency that appears obvious to all men, and without a specific object to be attained,—a great proportion, at least, of the public will be apt to consider our compassion for the miseries it induces, as a species of convenient affectation. The prayer annexed is a well-written composition. The compilers of the book of Common Prayer did not foresee that a day might come when the delivery of a pair of colours should be a religious ceremony.

The Duty of Perseverance in Well-Doing. A Sermon, preached in Thomas's, Southwark, Friday, January 1, 1796, for the Benefit of the Charity-School, in Gravel-Lane. By John Disney, D. D. F. S. A. 8vo. 6d. Johnson. 1796.

The duty of persevering in well doing is here recommended from such cogent motives, as cannot fail to leave an useful impression on the mind of the reader, who is at the same time guarded against that apparent zeal in the cause of religion and virtue, which degenerates into lukewarmness and indifference. The language of this sermon is plain and perspicuous, and well suited to occasions like that on which it was delivered. Text. Galat. vi. 9.

The Bishop of Landaff's 'Apology for the Bible' examined. In a Series of Letters, addressed to that excellent Man. By A. Macleod. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Sewed. Crosby. 1796.

Of all the attacks upon Revelation hitherto made, the present is, in our judgment, the most impotent and absurd.

N O V E L S.

Agatha; or a Narrative of recent Events. A Novel. 3 Vols. 12mo. 12s. Boards. Dilly. 1796.

This novel seems to have been written merely with a design to exhibit the French revolution in the most disgusting point of view; for the story is tedious and improbable, and the characters insipid or out of nature. When the public mind, however, is so violently agitated by political dissensions, we think it ill judged to flatter or offend the prejudices of any description of persons, by such fictitious horrors and imaginary massacres.

Consequences; or, Adventures at Rraxall Castle. A Novel. By a Gentleman. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Boosey. 1795.

The author of this production modestly announces himself in the Preface, as 'too young a man to pretend to improve others, his humble aim being innocently to amuse.' He quotes from Shenstone, who says 'A composition that enters the world with a view of amusing in a polite or innocent way, has a claim to indulgence, though it fail of the effect intended,'—and requests, if at the bar of criticism he is pronounced guilty of a *vain attempt*, the above authority may be admitted in mitigation of his *first offence*. We acknowledge ourselves not only inclined cheerfully to acquit him, but are willing to give him credit for yet more than he claims. The tale he relates is short and simple, and, if it displays no superior powers of invention, or bold flights of imagination, manifests good sense and just reflection, and is not ill calculated to exemplify the obvious and important moral which it enforces—the *consequences* that result from a vicious example, and the neglect of a virtuous education.

Isabinda of Bellefeld. A Sentimental Novel in a Series of Letters, By Mrs. Courtney. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Sewed. Bagster. 1796.

The gentle writer of this *sentimental* tale is so willing to avail herself of all the privileges of her sex, and so humbly throws herself upon our clemency, that we feel ourselves utterly disarmed of our critical acumen. Her production is made up of the usual incidents and sentiments which compose the *generality* of this species of publication (we always mean to except a distinguished and superior class). Her heroine, the fair Isabinda, is a paragon of softness and beauty, and, after a variety of tender distresses, which

serve but to give a zest to the felicity in store for her, is repaid for her sufferings, by the consummation of all earthly happiness.

Ariel; or, a Picture of the Human Heart. By Thomas Darton.
12mo. L. Roach. 1796.

The prefatory address to this little tale is sensible, and the purport excellent. Ariel, one of the tutelary sylphs supposed to be appointed to the guardianship of mankind, disgusted with the follies and vices of his charge, execrates the human race, and abjures his degenerate pupils. As a punishment for his rash judgments, he is condemned by Oberon, the chief or presiding spirit, to make, himself, the experiment of human nature, and, in a body of mortality, to sojourn for thirteen moons upon the earth. In this trial he gains, by woeful experience, a knowledge of the frailties and infirmities of human nature, the force of human passions, and human wants, with their various springs and remote operations,—and acquires from the result greater lenity, forbearance, and benevolence. We would recommend the study of this lesson to the intolerant and censorious, (which is allowing the author a tolerably large proportion of readers)—that when they feel inclined to indulge in invective against the errors and faults of their neighbours and acquaintance, they may at the same time recollect the various temptations to which different situations may have exposed them, and reflect whether they have, themselves, profited from all their opportunities of improvement. We ought, perhaps, in all our judgments, to endeavour to distinguish the *person* of the offender from the *crime*.

M E D I C A L.

A Pocket Conspectus of the New London and Edinburgh Pharmacopœias: wherein the Virtues, Uses, and Doses, of the several Articles and Preparations contained in these Works, are concisely stated, their Pronunciation as to Quantity is distinctly marked, and a Variety of other Particulars respecting them given, calculated more especially for the Use of Junior Practitioners. By Robert Graves, M. D. &c. &c. Small 8vo. 3s. Sewed. Murray and Highley. 1796.

The young physician is here presented with a neat little pharmacopœia, well calculated to supply the defective recollection of the properties of medicines, &c. which every practitioner, at his first outset, unavoidably labours under. The matter contained in this pocket volume is comprised in 112 pages, selected from the latest London and Edinburgh Pharmacopœias. Each article necessarily receives only a very small share of the editor's attention: and we think that many of the virtues, so hastily attributed to a variety of medicines, might with advantage be left unrecorded, until there

are more authentic proofs of their possessing such qualities; for example—

‘Aconitum, (i, n.) *herba*. Blue wolf’s-bane. Anodyne, sudorific, acrid, deobitruent; in chronic rheumatism, serophulous swellings, venereal nodes, amaurosis, &c. in powder gr. fs. ad gr. v, or more, bis die; or, tincture made with dried leaves one part to six of proof spir. dose gt. v gradually increased to gt. xl, or more.’
P. 3.

This hasty mode of attributing virtues to medicines, without any regard to experience, ought to be corrected by the authors of *Materia Medica*, as they mislead the young physician, both in his judgment and practice. On the whole, however, this Pocket Conspectus may prove serviceable in those cases for which the compiler recommends it.

An Address to Medical Students; a Letter to Dr. Fordyce; with Remarks and Questions upon Quotations from Dr. Fordyce’s Dissertation on Simple Fever. 8vo. 1s. Bell. 1795.

Whatever situation the writer of this flimsy pamphlet may hold in the profession, his objections to the conclusions of the learned and ingenious author of the ‘*Dissertation on Simple Fever*’ are not such as will tend to increase his reputation as a medical philosopher. In his remarks, there is much more of quibble than sound and manly objection.

NATURAL HISTORY.

A Discourse on the Emigration of British Birds; or, this Question at last sol’d: whence come the Stork and the Turtle, the Crane and the Swallow, when they know and observe the appointed Time of their Coming? containing a curious, particular, and circumstantial Account of the respective Retreats of all those Birds of Passage, which visit our Island at the Commencement of Spring, and depart at the Approach of Winter, &c. &c. By a Naturalist. 8vo. 2s. Walker. 1795.

This writer laments the inattention of naturalists to the subject on which he has written, and points out the line of conduct necessary to be observed by those who may be prevailed on to investigate it farther.

‘To be sufficiently qualified,’ says he, ‘for this task, it is necessary that the inquirer should confine himself to one certain tract the whole year; he should be particularly careful to mark the exact period of the arrival and disappearance of birds; he should observe, in what order the different species come, and at what time, and in what manner they go; also how they steer their course, whether

east, west, north, or south; he should commit every observation to paper, and compare them with the remarks of others who have written on the subject; he should likewise attend to the temperament of the air, and to the plenty or failure of fruits and berries, as on these accidents many curious and advantageous remarks may be made; he should cultivate an acquaintance with the gentlemen of the navy, consult their journals to discover what birds alight on the ships, and at the same time should endeavour to learn at what seasons they appeared, in what latitude, &c. Were these methods vigorously and strenuously pursued, we might easily trace them to their respective abodes.' p. xi.

Whence, says our author, come the *stork* and the *turtle*, the *crane* and the *swallow*? &c. This, he informs us, is 'at last solved.' Our readers will naturally expect to be indulged with the solution; and as it lies within a very moderate compass, they shall certainly be gratified—

'But to render this truth *quite indisputable*, to solve the matter fully, and prevent any farther controversies on this affair, we beg leave to observe, that *we* have more than once had ocular proof of what, with propriety, *we* may term an actual migration of these birds. About Old Michaelmas *we* have frequently observed immense numbers of swallows and martins settled sometimes on the tops of trees, and sometimes on bushes, at a great distance from their summer haunts; here they have sat silent for some time, as if in deliberation; on a sudden *we* have seen them all take wing, mount to a certain height, and with an easy regular motion, proceed toward the western ocean, when *our* eye has followed them till they were imperceptible; and what was very extraordinary, not a single one was to be found after the departure of the great assembly, which evidently testifies that what *we* observed was the *first sally*, or *setting out*, of these summer visitants. These annual proceedings *we* have remarked for a long series of years.' p. 26.

Unfortunately, this writer, in all his observations on this subject, by *we*, means *himself*; had he said that *fifty* other naturalists had supported the same opinion, we should at least have had an opportunity of admiring his candour, however destitute of new matter we might have thought his discourse.

L A W.

Reflections on Usury, as conducted by the Mode of Under-valued Annuities: in the Course of which, for the Benefit of those who are oppressed with them, are respectively pointed out, according to the different Securities, the different Means of Relief. 4to. 2s. Murray and Highley. 1796.

The author of these reflections complains that the evil of usury has experienced but a partial remedy from the interposition of the

legislature, by the celebrated Annuity Act, of the 17th Geo. III. It does, indeed, seem to us not reasonably to be accounted for, why in the case of minority the law should grant such peculiar protection from the depredations of unprincipled money-lenders, and not at the same time extend its salutary assistance to persons whose distressed circumstances give them an equal claim.

In allusion to the annuity act above mentioned, and which was introduced into the house of commons by the present lord chancellor when solicitor general, our author makes the following observations—

‘ To confine the use of money within the bounds the existing laws had prescribed, to render it subservient to honest and useful purposes, the bill alluded to was in it’s original form designed : it was calculated to restore to his family honours many an exiled proprietor ; it would have disencumbered many an estate so involved with annuities, that the owner of it, were he to live to the age of Methuselah, under an annual payment of seventeen per cent. could never hope to see it redeemed : it would have beamed comfort on families immersed in clouds of sorrow and distress ; and revived hospitality in mansions which oppression and usury had converted into dreary seats of desolation.

‘ But, instead of an act to prevent usury, that, which supplanted Mr. Wedderburn’s original design, tends to encourage it ; in that it lays open the borrower’s circumstances ; places every annuity he has granted on publick record ; and thereby enables the purchaser to make his bargain on surer grounds than he could have done before that act existed.

‘ Lord Kenyon afterwards took the matter up in court. Above the arts of petty-foggery that have sometimes disgraced high stations in the law, with the dignified spirit of the situation he possessed, as presiding in a court of equity, he declared, that “ where there were principles, he wanted not precedents. The case of young heirs had made a beginning,” (alluding to Mr. Wedderburn’s bill ;) “ and he was not afraid of adding men in distress to the list.” This was a language dictated by the spirit, not the literal quirks and chicanery, of the laws. In the instance then before him, he accordingly gave relief : and, on an appeal to the late lord chancellor, his lordship affirmed the master’s decree.’ P. 6.

The noble judge who thus expressed himself, did equal honour to his feelings and his situation. It is, however, to be lamented that more numerous and firm *legal* barriers are not erected to stop the career of a practice, which, by hardening the heart, and feeding the avarice of the lender, while it takes advantage of the distress of the *unfortunate* and encourages the dissipation of the *thoughtless* borrower, disgraces the commerce and corrupts the morals of the country.

A Collection of Cases on the Annuity Act, with an Epitome of the Practice relative to the Enrolment of Memorials. By William Hunt, Esq. The second Edition, enlarged and improved, &c. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Clarke and Son. 1796.

The utility of this collection is exclusively confined to the legal practitioner. Mr. Hunt thus commences his Preface to the present edition—

‘ This work is considerably enlarged by the insertion of a variety of cases, which have arisen upon the annuity act since the first edition was published. Those cases which in that edition did not immediately apply to the act, of which this collection professes solely to treat, are here omitted, because now, owing to the great increase of matter, they would unnecessarily have swoln this volume, which is intended merely for the practitioner’s vade mecum: whether those cases will appear hereafter, depends entirely upon my finding leisure to pursue the subject of annuities in all those branches, over which courts of law and equity have any jurisdiction. However, as a work of this sort still continues to be a *desideratum* in legal publications, I was unwilling to delay this practical treatise till that event took place; more especially as the frequent discussion of this part of the subject, and the strict hand courts of justice hold over transactions of this nature, makes it necessary for the practitioner to be very careful and exact in adopting the interpretation which this act has there received, because the validity of every annuity within it, absolutely depends on a perfect compliance with the solemnities prescribed thereby; and that too according to the exposition of those courts.’ P. vii.

In some further observations on his work, Mr. Hunt properly disclaims any merit but that of a mere compiler. Where the task is so easy, it ought surely to be well performed. Mr. Hunt’s cases may be faithfully transcribed; but we cannot compliment him on the felicity of his arrangement, or the correctness of his precedents.

MISCELLANEOUS.

A Pedestrian Tour through North Wales, in a Series of Letters. By J. Hucks, B. A. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Debrett. 1795.

Mr. Hucks disarms the severity of criticism by a modest acknowledgement that he does not expect his little work to be extended among a very large class of readers: the amusement of an individual was originally his sole object; and he has ventured to publish his letters, to assist those who may wish to become familiar with the route he pursued. To such, we think, his letters may be useful, and to others they will be found amusing. The best part of

them, however, are the reflections he makes on political and civil economy, which might have been made without performing on foot so fatiguing a journey. He gives us little that is new in his *descriptions*, but is every where a lively companion and a just reasoner.

Leisure Hours : or Entertaining Dialogues ; between Persons eminent for Virtue and Magnanimity. The Characters drawn from Ancient and Modern History. Designed as Lessons of Morality for Youth. By Priscilla Wakefield. Vol. II. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Darton and Harvey. 1796.

This little volume is in continuation of a work designed, by the intelligent and respectable authorefs, to convey a series of entertaining and instructive precepts to the youthful mind.

For this purpose Mrs. Wakefield has selected a number of interesting historical anecdotes, and by turning them into the form of dramatic dialogue, has exhibited the respective characters in their most lively and impressive attitudes. The following extract will shew the moral tendency, and pleasing style which characterise the productions of the writer—

‘ *The CROWN and HELMET ; or the ARTS of PEACE to be preferred to the SCIENCE of WAR.*

‘ Bravery and the love of arms have always characterised the French nation ; but warlike enthusiasm was never raised to a higher pitch among them, than at the time when Charles the Sixth was a boy ; his father, surnamed the Wise, perhaps suspicious that he had imbibed too much of the spirit of the military gallantry of the age, took an ingenious means of discovering the turn of his character, by presenting him with a crown of gold richly ornamented, and a helmet of polished steel. It is not improbable, that the choice of the young prince might give rise to a dialogue, somewhat similar to that which follows.

‘ *King.* Affairs of state, and the important duties of royalty, engross so large a portion of my time and thoughts, as to leave me but few opportunities of enjoying your company : the present half hour being at my own disposal, I have sent for you, that we may pass it together in the unrestrained freedom of private conversation.

‘ *Charles.* Nothing can be more agreeable to me, than the indulgence of visiting you, especially when you are alone, because then I am at liberty to express myself without reserve, but I have not courage to speak freely, when you are surrounded by a crowd of courtiers and attendants.

‘ *King.* Pomp and ceremony are part of the tribute which kings are obliged to pay to custom, and the eminence of their station ; the enjoyment of leisure and social intercourse, is a rare felicity ; let us avail ourselves of the present opportunity. On that table are placed a crown and a helmet, one of them is designed as a present for you ; take your choice of them.

‘ *Charles.*

' *Charles*. It requires no great deliberation, since you permit me to take that which pleases me best ; the helmet is mine.

' *King*. What motives can induce you to reject a crown, embellished with so many shining jewels, for a helmet of plain steel?

' *Charles*. The ornaments of the crown are very beautiful, and adapted to please my sister, but are not conformable to my taste ; the love of arms is my delight, and my highest ambition to become a celebrated warrior, equal in fame to my illustrious ancestors. As I hope to gain your consent to attend the next military expedition, I shall then wear the helmet, and the remembrance that it is your gift, will stimulate me to behave bravely, and deserve your approbation.

' *King*. My son, you shew a laudable ambition to excel ; direct it to the most excellent objects, and it will guide you to the path of true honour ; but beware of confining your ideas of merit to warlike exploits alone, the arts of peace conduce more to the happiness of mankind, than all the conquests history records. Select such of our noble progenitors, for your imitation, as have shewn themselves the fathers of their people, by civilizing and improving their manners, solicitous of diffusing virtue and tranquillity among every rank of their subjects.

' *Charles*. But surely those kings are to be esteemed the greatest heroes, who courageously headed their troops, and extended the limits of their kingdoms by their victories.

' *King*. They are regarded in that light by those that do not consider, that the prosperity of a nation consists more in the virtue of its inhabitants, than in the extent of its territory. A true hero, in public or private life, is he, who has learned to renounce his personal gratification, in order to confer happiness on others. A conqueror increases his own dominions, by diminishing those of the princes unhappily situated on his frontier. What would your opinion be of a person, who wished to enlarge his estate, and that he might accomplish his design, seized the fields contiguous to it, belonging to a neighbour less powerful than himself?

' *Charles*. I should declare him both dishonest and ungenerous, because he had taken that which did not belong to him, and had attacked a man that had not provoked him, who was unable to resent the injury.

' *King*. The same principles of immutable justice apply to kings and private persons ; therefore, according to this decision, Charles, many of those heroes you have been accustomed to admire, will be reduced to the characters of oppressors and plunderers. Had Alexander the Great employed his extraordinary talents in civilizing the Macedonians, instead of depopulating the earth, we should probably have heard less of him, but his subjects would have reaped much greater advantages from his reign, and his life would have been truly useful ; whereas his ambition rendered him

the scourge of his fellow-creatures. Divest his most brilliant victories of the false glare that adorns them, and little remains but carnage and misery. Songs of triumph attend the conqueror's ear, which drown the lamentations of those made wretched by his success.

'Charles. I cannot deny the truth of your remarks, though it is with the greatest reluctance I resign my favourite heroes to the reproach you cast upon them. Must I consider all warriors as pests to society?

'King. A patriot king never unsheathes his sword for the prosecution of wars created by his ambition; the defence of his country is the only cause that can rouse him to action. Confine your ardour to that point alone, lest your thirst for glory expose your people to misery, when you ascend the throne. Alfred the Great of England, so justly renowned for his heroic qualities, had spirit to expel those invaders who had driven him into exile; and wisdom, when he had subdued them, to apply himself to the internal government of his kingdom; the beneficial effects of his institutions are still remembered with gratitude, their influence is felt to this day, and endears his memory to posterity, as the universal benefactor of mankind. Copy this example, and lay aside your helmet till you are required to wear it, in chastising the insolent attacks of an unprovoked enemy.' P. 24.

We hope Mrs. Wakefield will continue her laudable exertions for the instruction of the rising generation. Much human misery, as well as ignorance, may doubtless be prevented by imparting to the tender mind, proper notions of things, and familiar examples of virtue.

Abrégé de l'Histoire Ancienne, en particulier de l'Histoire Grecques suivi d'un Abrégé de la Fable, à l'Usage des Elèves de l'Ecole Royale Militaire à Paris. 12mo. 3s. Bound. Dilly. 1794.

This abridgement is well executed, and adapted to the use of schools. It has the advantage of a correct geographical index, and a table of questions, embracing the principal facts in the ancient and fabulous history.

Questions to be Resolved; or, a new Method of exercising the Attention of Young People. Interspersed with various Pieces, calculated for Instruction and Amusement. Translated from the French of Madame de la Fite. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Sewed. Murray and Highley.

To form the minds and morals of youth, is one of the surest and least equivocal means of promoting reformation. We are indebted to the French for many ingenious and useful publications of this nature: the present has much merit, and we recommend it with pleasure to young readers.

CORRESPONDENCE.

OUR correspondent Philalethes will find the translation of Leonore, to which we referred, in the Monthly Magazine, No. II. The succeeding paragraph of his letter we take the liberty of inserting, with the answer.

‘FROM the learned Reviewer of Dr. Watson’s Apology, I would wish to know where in the Old or New Testament, or among their rational commentators, I can learn any thing of those beings whom he calls, “the sons of God?” p. 297. ad fin.—From the ingenious bishop, or from his equally intelligent Reviewer, I should be glad to know, what Revelation has taught mankind respecting those very interesting questions, which seem once to have occupied so much the anxieties and reasonings of Dr. Watson. To have fled from rational religion to Revelation, for a solution of the difficulties attending our enquiries, respecting the connection between “necessary existence and intelligence,” “between intelligence and benevolence,” &c. &c. seems to me to be running with an *anxious* mind to a master, determined to repel your *anxious* enquiries by a cold revolting silence.’

We have to observe, in return to PHILALETHES’ first quere, that the scenical representation in Job was the principal object in view. A similar exhibition appears in the Vision of Micaiah, 1 Kings, xxii. 19, &c. and in Zechariah iii, 1, &c.—A consideration of these passages, with the Temptation of Christ, in the Evangelists, and such other texts as the Concordance points out, where *The Sons of God, Angels, Satan, the Devil, &c.* occur, will, when the relative opinions of the Easterns, and their customs, are included, throw much light on the subject; which no writer, within our knowledge, has fully investigated.

As to the topics to which the next question adverts, we scruple not to admit that Revelation might be ransacked in vain. Not because (as Philalethes, perhaps *inadvertently*, hath stated) Revelation is the opposite to rational religion; but, in the point before us, a commutable term. Furnished with sufficient evidence of its divine origin, from miracles and prophecies, its discoveries and doctrines are authoritative dogmas. Had its design been to detail to us metaphysical subtilties, the occupation must have been endless; and, unbounded as is the compass of human curiosity, were every one to seek from it answers to his questions, the world could not contain books to comprise them. Is it not enough, if we believe the SCRIPTURES, *that they can make men wise unto salvation*,—and that, in them, *we receive the end of faith, even the salvation of our souls?*

His judicious observation, concerning the Index, is under consideration, though a great part of it has been already compiled.

We are obliged to Mr. Cofins for his favour, which is transmitted to the author of the article in question, and will be duly attended to by him.

The following paper from Dr. Hunter of York, though somewhat out of our ordinary course, is inserted to subserve the general good, and gratify the request of so respectable a correspondent.

GENTLEMEN,

The subject of this dissertation is of so much importance, that I am desirous of having it generally known before the season of sowing wheat comes on. If the plan of your Review will admit of so early a notice, it will much oblige your obedient servant,

YORK, July 12, 1796.

A. HUNTER.

A new

A new Method of raising Wheat for a series of Years on the same Land.

THE erroneous idea that plants draw from the earth such particles only as are congenial to their own natures, has probably occasioned the farming maxim, that wheat cannot be raised for a series of years upon the same land. But the truth is, that under the broadcast husbandry, there is not sufficient time for manuring and stirring the earth, between the operations of reaping and sowing. Such being the case, may we not remove the obstacle by substituting transplantation for sowing. With a view to decide upon this important question, a gentleman has instituted the following experiment :—In October 1795, a quart of wheat was drilled in a piece of garden ground, and on the 22d of March, 1796, the plants were taken up and transplanted into a field, which before had borne a crop of potatoes. The soil was a light loam, and contained six hundred square yards, or half a rood. The land was only once plowed, harrowed, and rolled, after which the plants were pricked down at the depth of one inch within the ground, and at the distance of nine inches from each other, each square yard containing sixteen plants. The expence of planting out was, by a skilful farmer, estimated at one guinea per acre, supposing the work to be chiefly done by women and children. At this time (June 14) the plants make a fine appearance, not one of them having failed. Should this experiment answer the purpose for which it is made, it is proposed after the crop is cut down, to have the land well plowed and manured, in order to prepare it for receiving another crop of transplanted wheat in the spring, and it is also proposed to continue the experiment for a number of successive years, in order to determine the doubtful point, ‘whether wheat can be raised for a series of years upon the same land.’ Independent however of the original purpose for which the experiment was instituted, there is reason to suppose, that the transplantation of wheat for a single year, will turn out a beneficial improvement.

The following reasons present themselves:

1. The scheme saves 11-12ths of the seed usually sown.
2. It employs the feeble hands of the village at a time when they have but little work.
3. Land that in winter has become too wet for sowing, may be planted in the spring, whereby it will be kept in its regular course of tillage.
4. The wheat may be hoed at a small expence, which will keep the land clean, and save hand-weeding in summer.
5. The crop will probably exceed in quantity.
6. It will give the farmer a taste for garden culture, which will insensibly remove that slovenliness too generally observed in farming operations.
7. Wheat may be transplanted upon any land, however light, if a judgment may be formed from a small experiment made this year upon a piece of land, almost too light for rye.
8. As it seems to be an established law in nature that land will not push up more stalks from one seed than she can well support, it follows that the greater the surface a plant has to stand upon, the greater will be the number of stems produced. In this mode of culture each plant has eighty-one inches of soil to grow upon, whereas in the broadcast husbandry, the plants have only twelve inches.
9. Land instead of lying waste under a summer fallow, may be made to produce a crop of cabbages, turnips, pease, beans, potatoes, or summer vetches, as preparatory to its being planted with wheat.
10. Should experience prove the justness of this idea, a field of five acres, kept constantly under transplanted wheat, will afford a sufficient supply of bread-corn for a family of fourteen persons.

* * This experiment is made in a field at Middlethorpe, near York, belonging to Samuel Barlow, Esq. and may be viewed from the left hand side of the road leading to Bishopthorpe.

T H E

CRITICAL REVIEW.

For OCTOBER, 1796.

The Economy of Nature explained and illustrated on the Principles of Modern Philosophy. By G. Gregory, D. D. joint evening Preacher at the Foundling Hospital, Author of Essays Historical and Moral, &c. In Three Volumes, with Forty-six Plates. 8vo. 1l. 7s. Boards. Johnson. 1796.

THERE is not any department of literature, in which a well-informed writer may employ himself with so much advantage to the public, as that of methodising and digesting the scattered particles of science, and making them assume a more popular form, and one more accessible to the intelligence of the bulk of readers, than they have hitherto appeared in.

There is a vast fund of knowledge dispersed at present throughout the literary world; but we have seldom seen it carefully collected or intelligently explained. These observations are peculiarly applicable to that branch of science, which forms the subject of these volumes. It has been too long enveloped in the technical language of chemists and mathematicians; the few popular works which presented a clear view of the natural world to the general reader, have, from the almost entire revolution which has taken place in philosophy, been rendered obsolete; the recent discoveries are scattered throughout a number of books, and many of them only to be found in the repositories of the learned societies of Europe.

In bringing together these detached facts and observations,—in giving them a systematic form,—and above all, in explaining them in clear and perspicuous language, our author has certainly rendered an essential service to the public; has opened the gates of science to the young and to the indolent, and has prepared an excellent text-book or repository for those who are already proficient—

‘ I have endeavoured (says he) to lay open the whole book of nature to my readers. I commence with the first principles of phi-

osophy, the laws of matter and motion, with an enumeration of the most simple or elementary substances. I proceed from these to explain the nature and phenomena of that most active and subtle of elements, heat or fire, which is so intimately connected with all other substances. The theory of light and colours, so immediately dependant on the preceding subject, succeeds; and this is followed by a short treatise of electricity. The different species of airs, and the atmospherical phenomena, are next treated of; these are succeeded by a description of the earth and mineral kingdom, and the most remarkable phenomena connected with them, such as volcanoes, earthquakes, &c. The nature and composition of water, with a short account of mineral waters, and of the general properties of that fluid, occupy the next department of the work.

‘ From these subjects I have proceeded to what is called the vegetable kingdom, including what is known on the nature and theory of vegetation. The animal economy succeeds; and that as little as possible might be wanting to complete the course of elementary knowledge, I have concluded by a sketch of the human mind. This latter part will connect properly with my *Essays Historical and Moral*, published some years ago, and which contain the great outlines of my sentiments on moral and political philosophy.’ Vol. i. p. vi.

Our author adds—

‘ If it is asked, for whose use this work is designed? I answer, for all whose curiosity would lead them to take a general survey of nature—for all, in particular, who wish to understand the elements and principles of natural history. I conceive also, that it will not be unuseful to the younger students of medicine, as it is intended as an easy introduction to general science; and as it comprehends all the first principles of chemistry and physiology. With the more enlightened class of female readers, I cannot but flatter myself that the work will be favourably received, as I really had their entertainment and information principally in view in compiling it; and they may depend upon it, that there is not a single expression in the whole that can reasonably offend the most delicate and modest ear.’ p. ix.

The doctor proceeds to offer what we cannot but esteem rather an extraordinary apology for deviating from the line of his profession, in compiling the present work—

‘ I have never (he observes) yet been enabled to gain, by the exercise of my profession, a livelihood for myself and family; and it must appear a hard case to confine the whole attention of any man to what will not furnish him with the necessaries of life.’ p. x.

Such an apology was not required; and we wish the majority

rity of his profession made an equally laudable use of their leisure. Perhaps, however, as the doctor is an ecclesiastical historian, he only meant to add a new fact to those contained in his history.—In this view we wish we could consider it: but unfortunately the fact is not *new* in this country:—we could name several persons in the church, of the most distinguished talents, who yet cannot boast much better success in their professional career.—It is not *new* in the history of other countries: for in the *French* church, for some years previous to the revolution, it was almost an established rule to prefer, or bring forward, no person of talents: and why should not our spiritual rulers be permitted to imitate so bright and happy an example?

But to quit a subject which can only fill the friend of literature and religion with disgust, we cordially agree with our author that he has been not less usefully employed, than if he had been engaged in compiling a treatise on theology. To furnish to men of leisure an innocent and liberal entertainment, and to lead the young mind to observe and understand the system of that world of which he forms a part, is certainly no inefficacious mode of promoting both morality and religion.

The work is divided into three volumes, as the title expresses; and the first comprehends five books, which treat, 1. Of the general Properties of Matter. 2. Of the Nature of Fire. 3. Of Light and Colours. 4. Of Electricity. 5. Of Air. Each of the four last books is introduced by a short and entertaining history of the discoveries in the particular branch of science of which it treats, and this serves at once to open the subject in an agreeable manner; and to acquaint the reader with the outlines of the science.

In treating of *elements*, our author follows entirely the new philosophy, and nearly adopts, we observe, the arrangement and even the nomenclature of the French chemists. On the subject of heat and fire, he is evidently the disciple of Dr. Black; and indeed this book will present more of novelty to the generality of readers than the succeeding; for though Dr. Black's lectures have been frequently transcribed, we have never before seen in print so full a detail of his doctrines. As a specimen of the manner in which the historical part of this work is executed, we shall extract the introductory chapter to this book—

‘ So wonderful is the nature, so extensive is the action, and so eminent is the power of fire, that by one of the greatest nations of antiquity it was adored, as the embodied presence of the supreme God: and even in countries where the adoration was less palpable and direct, something mysterious was always attributed to this sub-

tile and astonishing element; and the rites and mysteries of fire were celebrated in temples and in groves, from the shores of the Hellespont to the banks of the Tiber.

‘ An opinion seems to have been prevalent among the early philosophers of Greece, that fire is the only elementary and homogenous principle in nature, and that from its different modifications all this variety of different bodies is produced. This idea is ridiculed by Lucretius, who adopts the system of Epicurus: and indeed the Epicureans, as well as the Peripatetics, seem to have considered fire as a distinct elementary substance, capable of combining with the other elements, but by no means the matter from which they are originally generated.

‘ The history of error can afford but little instruction, otherwise volumes might be filled with the fantastical opinions which have been from time to time entertained concerning the element of fire. On the revival of letters and philosophy, our illustrious Bacon, in a treatise expressly written upon the subject, endeavours to prove, that heat is no other than an intestine motion or vibration in the parts of bodies; and he was followed by most of the philosophers of this kingdom during the last century. The opinion of Bacon is supported by a variety of facts, which are adduced by Mr. Boyle in a dissertation on the mechanical origin of heat and cold; nor does the system appear repugnant to the sentiments of Newton; though he speaks of it with that diffidence which is always observable in his writings, when treating of facts not absolutely demonstrated by experiments of his own.

‘ Notwithstanding the reputation of the English philosophy, this theory was received with great reluctance abroad. The celebrated Homberg, Sgravesend, and Lemery the younger, assert, that fire is a distinct substance or body, which enters into combination with all other bodies, pervades all bodies, and may be again expelled from them by violent motion or compression, though the fire is certainly not generated by such motion.

‘ One of these philosophers (M. Lemery) indeed carried his system much further, and made a very near approach to the received doctrines of the present day. He asserted, that fire is not only contained in those bodies which are inflammable, but even in water itself. Ice he affirmed to be the natural state of water; and he added, that the fluidity of that substance is a real fusion, like that of metals exposed to the fire, only differing as to the quantity of heat necessary to preserve it in fusion.

‘ About the commencement of the last century instruments were first contrived for measuring the heat of bodies by the degree of expansion; and this invention seemed to give some colour to the hypothesis of the German philosophers, since it is not very clear how a mere increase of motion can increase the extent of bodies. It was long observed, that all bodies are expanded by an increase of heat;

heat; and it was evident that fluid matters were affected more than solids. The first substance therefore that was employed, was the very expansible and elastic fluid air; a quantity of this fluid was inclosed within a small tube, with a small drop of oil, or some coloured liquor, at the top, which served to shew the expansion which the inclosed air underwent from the increase of temperature. As this thermometer, however, was open at the top, it was also found to be affected by the external air; tubes hermetically sealed were therefore presently substituted, and the coloured liquors themselves were found to be sufficiently expansible to mark the degrees of heat. Spirit of wine was employed by the Florentine academicians, and oil was afterwards made use of by Sir Isaac Newton; who constituted the points at which water freezes, and that at which the same fluid boils or assumes the form of vapour, as the extreme points of his scale of heat. These thermometers were however superseded, at least in England and Germany, by the invention of Olaus Roemer, afterwards improved by Fahrenheit, who substituted mercury in the place of the other fluids which had previously been employed in the construction of thermometers.

* The sagacious and learned Boerhaave, both by his own experiments and by his attention to those of others, contributed greatly to the elucidation of the doctrine of heat and fire. He was a strenuous assertor of the existence of fire as a distinct elementary substance. Expansion or rarefaction he considers as the uniform sign or criterion of its existence in other bodies. The production of fire from the attrition of two hard bodies, as a flint and steel, or two pieces of hard wood, &c. he accounts for, by supposing that the parts of these bodies will every moment be violently compressed, which will excite in them, by their re-action, a vibratory motion, and this will necessarily excite and expel the fire which existed latent in their pores; and as fire is capable of being produced in this manner by the violent attrition or motion of all bodies, he infers that it is present through every part of nature; yet, since it is expelled by the attrition or vibration of the particles, he thinks it is clear that it does not penetrate the integrant or elementary particles of bodies, but exists only in their pores or interstices. As fire is supposed to exist in all bodies, he proves its existence in air and water; and agrees in opinion with the younger Lemery, that ice is the natural state of water, and that it is kept in a fluid state by a quantity of fire which it absorbs.

* There is a period when the minds of men are prepared for the reception, as well as for the prosecution, of great discoveries in science. The hints, for they are little more, which had been afforded by these philosophers, appear to have made little impression; and the nature of heat, fire, and fluidity, seems to have been involved in obscurity and contradiction, till the genius and industry of Dr. Black, of Edinburgh, developed a system, which explains

satisfactorily a variety of the most curious and difficult phenomena in nature. By a number of nice observations, he was enabled to determine that absolute heat or fire was absorbed by all bodies whatever, and that it was absorbed in greater quantities by fluid than by solid substances; heat therefore he considered as the cause of fluidity. He found further, that bodies in passing from a solid to a fluid state absorb a quantity of heat without increasing their temperature or sensible heat, as manifested by the thermometer. Thus, if water with a quantity of solid ice is set over the fire, the temperature of the water will not be increased, but will continue at the heat of 32 degrees, the freezing point, till every particle of the ice is dissolved. The reason is, that fire being absolutely necessary to impart fluidity to any body, in proportion as the ice becomes fluid the superfluous fire is absorbed. In the same manner, when the fluid is converted into vapour, a quantity of absolute heat or fire is absorbed without any increase of temperature above the boiling or vapourific point. This discovery Dr. Black was led to by heating water in a close furnace a considerable degree above the boiling point; when on opening the vessel in which the water was confined, he found that a small quantity of the fluid burst out suddenly in the form of vapour, and the temperature both of the vapour and of the remaining water immediately sunk to the boiling point. It was evident therefore that the superfluous heat was absorbed by the vapour, and as the quantity of water which was lost by the process was not great, it followed that a considerable quantity of the matter of heat or fire is necessary to keep water in a state of vapour. When any quantity of heat is expelled from a body, in such a manner as to affect our touch, it is termed, according to Dr. Black's theory, sensible heat; and when it is absorbed by any body, and exists in combination with that body, either in a fluid or vapourific state, it is termed latent heat. It is also evident from what has been stated that the opinion of these later philosophers is, that heat or fire, which has also been called igneous fluid, matter of heat, and lately by the French chemists caloric, is a distinct substance or fluid, which has an attraction for all other substances; that it pervades most bodies; that it is the only permanent fluid in nature, and the cause of fluidity in all other bodies. That not only common fluids, such as water, but all elastic fluids, such as vapour and air, owe their existence in that state to the presence of heat; and that it is subject to all the laws of attraction, and is more forcibly attracted by some bodies than by others.

‘ The school of Dr. Black seems to have considered light and heat as essentially different; and Dr. Scheele, a Swedish philosopher, has endeavoured to prove, that light is formed by an union of the matter of heat with phlogiston or the inflammable principle: but this theory is now exploded.

‘ Upon the theory of Dr. Black, the late ingenious Dr. Crawford

ford has founded a very curious system concerning the generation of heat within animal bodies, which he considers as derived from the air we breathe. The air being condensed on the lungs, the heat which it contained in a latent state is absorbed and dispersed over the animal body.—But this is a subject which properly belongs to another part of the work.' Vol. i. p. 62.

We indulge our own partiality in transcribing the following short character of Dr. Crawford, contained in a note on this chapter—

' I cannot mention this truly amiable philosopher, without a short tribute to his memory, though it has apparently little connection with the subject. No man was ever better calculated for promoting useful science than Dr. Crawford. In him industry and perseverance were established habits; and candour and caution characteristic dispositions. With all the advantages of a liberal education, he united great natural sagacity, acuteness, and ingenuity; yet the last quality was tempered by a coolness and collectedness of mind, which effectually prevented his too hastily acceding to the rash conclusions of plausible theory. With all his excellence as a scientific man, he possessed the gentlest of tempers, the most friendly heart.—From his promised revision of this work, I had flattered myself with great advantages; but what are private losses, compared with that of the public! If, after having served his country in a public capacity, the family of such a man should be left in indigence, to what a state is the national spirit reduced!' Vol. i. p. 68.

The third book, which treats of light and colours, is also introduced by a history of discoveries; and this is followed by a chapter which comprehends a general view of the subject. The remaining chapters contain a concise but clear and satisfactory treatise of optics, in which the author appears almost implicitly to have followed sir Isaac Newton,—or rather to have abridged his incomparable treatise.

The book on electricity is short; and the author appears to be an advocate for the Franklinian theory, though he very candidly states some objections which have been urged against it.

In treating of air, the doctor has followed the French chemists, and the antiphlogistic sect. This part of the work, therefore, will present but little new to those who are conversant with the writings of those philosophers. It contains, however, an excellent digest of their discoveries, and an application of them to natural phenomena, which is not elsewhere to be found. The following remark, if not new, is at least well expressed—

' If the limits of this work permitted, or if the researches of

philosophers had furnished us with sufficient materials, it would be a most pleasing speculation to trace the wisdom of Providence in the very ample means which he has provided for supplying us with this necessary fluid [vital air]. It is evident, that immense quantities of it are, by the various processes of combustion, destroyed, or, to speak more philosophically, condensed, and by its union with inflammable matter formed into water. This water is again raised into the atmosphere in the form of vapour; it falls in dew or rain upon the leaves of plants, and there, by the genial action of the solar rays, a new decomposition again takes place, and every branch, every leaf, every blade of grass, is occupied in the beneficial function of again impregnating the atmosphere with this salutary fluid. The quantities too, which are absorbed by the calces of metals, must be immense; but by the various processes for the smelting and reduction of these metals, the oxygen is again set free, and a fresh supply is produced. Even the air, which is injured by respiration, is doubtless again, by a variety of modes, the greater part concealed from our view, purified, and rendered once more fit for use, since fixed air, in a disengaged state, is, comparatively speaking, but a rare substance in nature, and since there is reason to suppose that many of the carbonic bodies may be recruited also by its decomposition. Ignorance of nature is proverbially the sole source of atheism; and who can contemplate this astonishing revolution, this circulation of benefits, and not smile at the extreme folly of the man, who can suppose these appointments established without intelligence or design.' Vol. i. p. 383.

The following extract we insert, from its obvious utility—

'The air of the atmosphere is most generally injured by the destruction of the pure part, and the generation of carbonic acid gas, as in most of the processes of combustion, and in that of respiration. When it is necessary to purify the air from the carbonic acid, which may be too abundant in it, any contrivance for bringing it into contact with lime-water will sufficiently answer this purpose. A cloth dipped in that liquor, and suspended near the floor, will generally purify the air of a room from any contamination of fixed air.

'Combustion or respiration are, however, not the only means by which atmospheric air is injured. Phosphorus of every kind, liver of sulphur, oil of turpentine, cements of wax, oils of mints, cinnamon, &c. nitrous acid, and even nitrous æther, at once diminish and deprave it.

'The air is also rendered unwholesome by the absorption of putrid or inflammable vapours, the explosion of gunpowder, by oil paints, by the volatile spirit of sal ammoniac, by spirits of wine, by every kind of perfumery or artificial scents, by the vapour of new plastered walls, by all putrid substances, and especially by
stagnate

stagnate water; these substances all diffuse a quantity of inflammable air or vapour through the surrounding atmosphere, and some of them consume the pure or vital part. Even the vapour of pure water in considerable quantities is pernicious to animal life; Mufchenbroek observed, that it threw a bird into great anxiety; that the vapour of vinegar had a similar effect; that the vapour of spirit of wine killed a bird; and that several others were fatal to life.

‘ From these facts it is manifest that the burying of the dead in populous towns is a wretched and dangerous mockery of police. I know a certain great town where, in burial places in the very middle of the town, the dead are buried not six inches below the surface; and in London, notwithstanding the act of parliament, what with the present evasion of that act, the depositing in vaults, and the frequent breaking up of the ground, and removing putrid bodies, the case is not much better; and indeed much might yet be done to render the air of London more salubrious than it is.’ Vol. i. P. 414.

With these specimens we, for the present, take leave of this useful and entertaining work, which we cannot in justice but recommend as an excellent compendium of modern philosophy. From the extracts, our readers will perceive that the language is simple and perspicuous; we have to add, that it appears in general correct, and in some parts is animated, and even brilliant, as far as the subject would admit.

(To be continued.)

Letters on a Tour through various Parts of Scotland, in the Year 1792. By I. Lettice, B. D. 8vo. 6s. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

IT is not a century since the inhabitants of the southern part of this island knew little else of their northern neighbours, than that they were very poor and very dirty; and if a scattered traveller now and then made his way amongst the rocks and torrents of so wild a country, his complaints of the miserable accommodations he was obliged to submit to, and the little civilisation of the country, repressed all desire to be acquainted with a people, whose habits and manner of living the pampered Englishman, basking on the sunny side of the hedge, considered as equally remote from his own, with those of the inhabitants of Kamschatka or Caffraria.

Circumstances are now altered; the tourist and the tourist-reader have long been familiarly acquainted with the romantic scenery and picturesque beauties of the sister country; the lakes of Scotland have been as much celebrated as the banks of the Thames; opulence and fashion not only reside in the towns,

towns, but spread their influence into the remotest parts of the wild Highlands; neat and comfortable inns accommodate the traveller; the spongy turf gives way to the green sod; the bareness of the hills is corrected by innumerable plantations; and such is the rising spirit of improvement, that though much has been written and much observed, an intelligent traveller always finds new matter for observation, and new establishments for notice and description.

Mr. Lettice sets out from Carlisle, and enters Scotland at Gretna-Green; from thence he pursues his route through Annandale, Glasgow, Greenock, the Isle of Bute, Dunbarton, Inverary, Glenorchy, Glenco, and the chain of forts, to Inverness; thence along the coast to Elgin and Castle Gordon; by Huntley to Aberdeen, Dundee, Perth, Stirling,—to Kinnaird to visit the Abyssinian traveller; and, lastly, to Linlithgow and Edinburgh, where he takes leave of his readers.

Mr. Lettice, in his Preface, makes us understand that he lays claim to a great deal of life and colouring in his descriptions: for he tells us that ‘it has been particularly his desire to carry his reader with him into every scene he describes, and to make the whole face of the country, as it were, visible to his imagination—that so he may be almost persuaded that he exists and moves in each real and local circumstance, in which the tourist moves.’ This is a laudable design; and the author has a lively and pleasant manner of writing, not ill calculated for the execution of it; we will only hint, for the benefit of all tourists, that nothing has more a tendency to give this air of truth, than perfect simplicity of narrative, without any heightening of incident or after touches of colouring.

The reader’s attention is not detained long together till the author arrives at Glasgow. The mode of living of this great commercial town, and their little propensity to amusement, is noticed in the following terms—

‘These walks (the Gallow-gate Greens), I learnt, are at no time much frequented; although little seems wanting but company, and the removal of linen, exposed to dry, which conceals the verdure, to make them very pleasant. Wild scenes of wood, remote from human abodes, affect the imagination most agreeably from their natural state of undisturbed solitude: but to see public avenues, long, spacious, and handsomely planted, like these, in the vicinage of a fine town, meant purposely to assemble the rich, the young and gay, thus neglected and forlorn, excited a sensation of disappointment, to which a stranger does not immediately reconcile himself. But the citizens of Glasgow, as I was going to tell you, shew little disposition, at present, to many of those social indulgencies, to which most populous towns, whether rich or poor, are generally

generally but too much inclined. They can scarcely keep open their play-house during the course of one month in a year; and their dancing assemblies are on foot only in the winter season.

‘The better ranks of women appear little in the streets; indeed scarcely any where less, being laudably engaged at home in the education of their children and the economy of their families; whilst their husbands are employed in their fabrics and counting-houses on the means of establishing the next generation solidly, or at ease in the world. They, whose greater affluence enables them to substitute deputies in the more laborious provinces of their vocation, are properly occupied in the higher offices of the magistracy, the police of the town, or the chambers of commerce and manufactures. One would almost conceive Glasgow to be unacquainted even with the name of idleness. The dreaming oscitancy of a set of beings, continually in quest of something to do, because they can never resolve to be actually doing, so common in most towns among those at their ease, is unknown here. Every man, and every woman have each their objects of pursuit; and they must, at least, be negatively happy, who have not leisure to be miserable. A dish of tea; a party of conversation; a quiet game at cards, without the poignancy of high play, are the ordinary amusements of an afternoon’s visit at Glasgow. The men are not averse to prolonging conversation after dinner over a bowl of small punch; the favourite beverage of their more social hours. But the pleasure, most regularly indulged, is their daily call at the tontine coffee-room. Here every man meets his friends, or his acquaintance; here he learns whatever is new or interesting at home or abroad, in politics, commerce; and often in literature. His mind recovers, or acquires here tone and elasticity: and each returns to his family or his business with new ideas to apply, to exercise, or contemplate, according to his pursuits, or his humour. Here then is centered the principal amusement of the place, whilst the only luxury indulged at Glasgow, is the passion for elegant building.’ p. 85.

To prove that all our northern neighbours are not so grave, the next passage we shall give our readers is the lively account of a Scottish reel—

‘Night was now coming on, and we retired to our inn, which we had left, two hours before, in perfect order, and tranquillity. But we had scarcely re-entered, and sat down to an early supper, meaning to retire soon to bed; when we suddenly heard a great deal of running up and down; the voices of men and women, in all the adjoining rooms; some talking, others singing, and whistling. Presently, struck up a merry strain of music, in a room directly beneath us: dancing succeeded: the whole house shook: our table, our seats, our very plates and spoons, responsively partook the general movement; as we ourselves did, a few minutes
after-

afterwards. For, as soon as we found, that all thoughts of sleep must be deferred, for a season, we descended, in haste, in order to see the company, and the ball. Having squeezed, with some effort, through the crowd of the passage, and door-way, many a bonny lad and lassie, did we see; who, having finished their day at the cotton-works, were, very nimbly, and not ungracefully, performing the lively evolutions of the Scottish reel. The dance, and the music, were national, and merited the attention of strangers. To give you, however, any precise ideas of the nature of the steps, with all the crossing, shuffling, springing, and frisking of the dancers; or to describe their setting-to, their figuring in and out, and turning about; their clapping of hands, and snapping of fingers, would be impossible. There was something of all this, and more in the dance: every man had his partner, and the number of couples, in each reel, seemed indefinite. The music, and the dance, began very temperately, in a kind of adagio movement. Each couple glided gently along, for two, or three rounds; the motion increased by degrees, till it became brisker and more lively; at length wonderfully rapid; and concluded like the German waltz, by each pair joining hands, and whirling round with a velocity continually accelerated,

——— Quo non aliud velocius ullum,
Mobilitate viget, viresque acquirit eundo;

till the parties, growing giddy, began to reel and ended the dance, but when unable either to move, or even to stand any longer. I should not have omitted to mention, that a certain rapturous yelp, which every now and then escapes the male dancers in the height of their glee, seems to give new spirit to their movements. Considerable credit was due to that address and circumspection of the swains, by which they avoided trampling upon the naked feet of the nymphs, whilst most vigorously footing it very near them in shoes of a very massive sole. After a short pause the dance was renewed, and an agreeable young woman invited us to partake in it. As it was impossible not to have sympathized in the animation of the scene, I know not, that any thing but our ignorance of the steps and the figure, prevented our accepting the challenge. Our excuse allowed us, however, to remain spectators, which we did till the assembly broke up, and departed, according to their custom, about eleven o'clock. Such is the manner, in which the cotton workers, and young tars, returned from their sea-faring expeditions, amuse themselves on Saturday evenings, and particular holidays.

P. 139.

The following description of a Highland cottage, taken from a village near Tyndrum, is perfectly exact—

‘ U₁ on stones and pebbles mingled together, and reared, out-
wardly,

wardly, without cement or plaister, into four rough walls, about five feet and a half high, some rude unhewn poles, often about the same height, are placed parallel to each other, and reach, angularly, one transverse beam, or rafter, at the ridge. A few light pieces, upright, or horizontal, are nailed at the sides. A quantity of oat straw, not very artificially laid upon split sticks, nailed over these poles, constitutes the roof. This thatch is secured against the wind, by heath or hay bands staked upon it, and running all over it in small squares. A couple of holes, about a foot square, are left in the walls for windows, and another for the door-way; the former, near Tyndrum, commonly occupied by a glazed casement, of four panes, or a large one single, and oftener, elsewhere, by nothing but a wooden shutter, kept open in the day, and closed at night. The door, seldom above five feet high, is generally here of board; but I have often seen a kind of willow, or osier-hurdle, pretty closely wattled, serve for the same purpose. When the smoke is allowed any other issue than at the door, or windows, four stout sticks set upright, and square, with a few others, running transversely, to frame them, the whole bound round with heath-bands, and plaistered with mortar on the inside, form the chimney. But as these chimneys are seldom so constructed as to exclude the rain, a serious inconvenience in a wet climate, these apertures, in the roof, are often dispensed with, to avoid it. The floor is the bare earth, sometimes made even, and tolerably smooth, but oftener left rough. Where the inside of the walls are not plaistered with mortar, the peat, or turf, is so piled up round the room, in double, triple, and quadruple rows, as to serve, till its consumption, as fuel, reaches the wall, for the wainscot of the house. A second story is scarcely every thought of, in these cottages: they are generally divided into two small rooms on each side of the door. Although the cottages, in the south-west part of the Highlands, have commonly a thatch of oat straw, and, in summer, a flourishing crop of oats, they are more northwardly covered, on the roof, with fods of earth laid, partly one over the other, in the manner of tiles. These, indeed, frequently cover the cottage from the top to the bottom, and when this covering is entirely green with grass, an assemblage of these huts, forming a village or hamlet, have, to the eye of a stranger, a singular, but not a disagreeable effect. But I am sorry to say, there is nothing within to compensate for this pitiful exterior; and that nothing can be more scanty, mean and squalid, than their furniture and house-hold utensils. Two or three boards, as often unshaven, as otherwise, slightly tacked together, are a table. If we find three or four wooden stools, and a crazy old chair, for the elder part of the family, the rest are glad to seat themselves upon a heap of turf, if not upon the floor. A single kettle, and, perhaps, a saucepan, a few coarse platters, wooden dishes and spoons, a bedstead, or two, with wretched flock, or
straw

straw mattraffes, and a few coarse rugs to cover them, make up the remainder of the inventory. I have not been describing some one single cottage, to which the misery or despair of its inhabitant might have led me, through commiseration on his behalf: this is a picture of all, within and without, which my mortified curiosity induced me to examine; and, more particularly on the route from Tyndrum to Inverness, comprehending nearly 120 miles. From the exterior, however, which I saw of many hundred cottages, bearing the greatest resemblance to those, which I entered, as well as from the result of enquiry, I cannot help concluding, that, except the houses of the nobility, those of the gentry, clergy, sheep-farmers, and inn-keepers, scattered here and there, I have described nineteen out of twenty, not of all the pig-sties, but the dwellings of the peasantry in the northern Highlands.' p. 280.

Proceeding farther northward beyond fort Augustus, we meet with a fox-hunter very little akin to the same species of beings in England—

‘As we were ascending the hills we overtook a stout, honest looking Highlander, of whom we enquired our way; for we saw at some little distance a separation of roads, and the military one had already diverged much from the strait line. Finding this man good-humoured and communicative, I entered into conversation with him. Though he was on foot, his activity enabled him, in a skipping kind of walk, to keep pace with my horse for nearly an hour. He acquainted me, that his vocation was fox-hunting; and he expressed himself properly in saying so. His professed business, for several years, had been the pursuit and destruction of the foxes, which frequent this country, and make great depredations among the sheep. In these excursions he is armed with a gun, has always one attendant to wait his orders, and is followed by dogs of different species, grey-hounds, spaniels, terriers, &c. This suite is maintained for his use at the expence of the county; on whose account others are employed in the same way. Five shillings is paid for every fox taken. Martens, mountain-cats, and eagles are casually, objects of his pursuit. The skins of the first of these animals are the sole reward of his exertions and success with respect to them. What compensation is made for mountain-cats, and eagles, I did not understand. The latter are very hostile to the younglings of the flock, and much vigilance, and sometimes danger, must be submitted to, in order to destroy them. A method commonly practised is, to lay a dead horse near the crags in which they build; for the situation of their aeries is soon discovered by those concerned to observe their flight, or listen to their screams. The hunters watch with their guns under the covert of trees or rocks; and when the family are settled on the carcase devouring their repast, discharge their pieces at the same instant. But as the vigilance and quick-

sightedness of these birds, oblige their pursuers to take their stand at a considerable distance, the best marksmen often miss their aim. Sometimes these huntsmen ascend to the pinnacle of the crag, fix ropes about them, and then letting themselves down into the nest, take the young eaglets. But these adventures are attended with too much peril, to be very frequent. In conveying the idea of a family at their meal, my expression was, according to the mountaineers account, literally proper; for if a party of three or four eagles are seen swooping down on the same prey, they are always supposed an old pair and their young ones, before the latter are arrived at that state of maturity, at which they are always driven from their native crags, to establish themselves on some rock or precipice at a considerable distance; as more than one pair of full grown eagles rarely attempt a settlement in the neighbourhood of each other; and the attempt is never made without a fierce attack upon the invaders from the ancient occupants of the domain.' P. 345.

"In our intervals of leisure," continued he, with something of archness in his look, which I did not understand, "we fox-hunters, sometimes, run greater risks than in climbing rocks for eaglets; and that is when we skip from crag to crag, and one summit of rock to another, to chase the red-deer on the mountains. But profit brings pleasure: this is the game we like best, and happy he who gets it. When an adventure of this sort has answered to me, I slip my booty into some pit till night, then returning sling it on my shoulders, and hie home with it to my cottage; where my family, and a friend or two in the secret, make merry over it for days together; we salt up the hams for our Christmas cheer, and a dainty dish they make us." He described too, with great glee, the excursions, which he makes every year, in the month of August, with shooting parties of gentlemen, who come from the Lowlands, and, sometimes, from England, in quest of grouse and other mountain game, "a sort of diversion," he observed, with a sigh, "which was likely, too soon, to be at an end, as the birds were grown very scarce, since the poor cottagers' farms had been turned into sheep-walks, and shepherds had burnt up the heath, which served for cover to the game." P. 350.

Our author was now arrived at the fall of Fyres, which is described in a very picturesque manner. The dangerous leaps he was obliged to take to see it in all its beauty, may serve to console the reader, who is obliged to be content with the description by his fire-side. The museum of Mr. Bruce, at Kinnaird, consisting of many thousand articles, gave the traveller an entertainment of a different kind; but we must not farther extend our quotations. Enough has been given, to justify our recommendation of Mr. Lettice's tour, as affording both entertainment and information. The style and manner

ner are easy and pleasant : and though the account of what the author has actually seen, is occasionally mixed with digression and anecdote not essential, it is a liberty always taken by travellers, especially when they throw their memorandums into the form of letters ; and as it contributes to the variety of the work, it probably adds to the pleasure of the reader! Mr. Lettice has some thoughts of publishing a biography of Scotch literati, which he had at first intended to have inserted in this work, but (judiciously we think) altered his purpose.

A Commentary on the Revelation of St. John. By Bryce Johnston, D. D. Minister of the Gospel at Holywood. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

DR. Johnston having observed, that ‘ this prophecy bears the strongest internal evidence, that no subsequent prophecy should be necessary to unfold its meaning, but that it should be discovered by the right use of ordinary means, (see chap. xxii. 10.) and also that in chap. i. 3. all men are called upon, by a regard for their own happiness, to read, hear, study, and obey the words of it ;’—after searching through every writer on the Revelation, that came to his knowledge, but not finding one who had explained the book upon fixed and established principles, or unfolded its true and connected meaning,—set himself to examine the prophetic scriptures of the Old Testament, whether there were any peculiar idiom, any characteristic features, in which they all agree. More successful now than before, he found all the prophecies to be marked with two appropriate criteria :—the first, that they were all written in symbolical language ; and the second, that all of them, of any length, were interspersed with explanatory parts in alphabetical language. These keys, it is observed, are always, in this book, introduced by an angel, or an expression directing the reader’s attention ; such as, ‘ here is wisdom,’ Rev. xiii. 18.—xvii. 9. Symbolical language is again discriminated by two characters, an hieroglyphic and a symbol ; the former being a complete figure made up of the assemblage of two or more parts into one picture, as in chapter 1. from the middle of verse 12, to the end of verse 16 :—the latter, a single detached member, such as a candlestick, a star, a two-edged sword. Hence the doctor infers, that the meaning of symbols is more fixed and uniform than alphabetical characters ; the one being arbitrary, changeable, and local ; the other natural, permanent, and universal.

On these grounds, Dr. Johnston, in his Commentary, explains the meaning of every hieroglyphic, or symbol, the first

time it occurred; and whenever it appears again, uses it in the same sense; which sense, it is further remarked, was, that it bore in the prophecies of Isaiah, Jeremiah, Ezekiel, Daniel, Hosea, Paul and Peter.

The book is next considered under the two general divisions marked by Christ himself, chapter i. 19,—the things which *are*, and the things which shall *be*,—and the grand exhibition of them is represented as made to John within the space of one Lord's day, (chap. i, 9, 10, 11) in fourteen distinct visions, according to the following order—

‘ Vision first, narrated in chap. iv. v. vi. which contains the general introduction to the prophecies of this book, the opening of the sealed book in general, and the opening of the six seals in particular.

‘ Vision second, narrated in chap. vii. which contains the sealing of the servants of God.

‘ Vision third, narrated in chap. viii. and ix. which contains the sounding of the six trumpets.

‘ Vision fourth, narrated in chap. x. which contains the little opened book, and the general introduction to the prophecies, which respect the history of the world and of the church, from the year of Christ 756 to the end of the world.

‘ Vision fifth, narrated in chap. xi. which contains the two witnesses prophesying in sackcloth.

‘ Vision sixth, narrated in chap. xii. which contains the woman in the wilderness, and the red dragon.

‘ Vision seventh, narrated in chap. xiii. which contains the beast with seven heads and ten horns, with crowns upon his horns, and the name of blasphemy upon his heads.

‘ Vision eighth, narrated in chap. xiv. which contains the lamb standing upon Mount Zion, and the introduction to the fall of Babylon.

‘ Vision ninth, narrated in chap. xv. and xvi. which contains the seven vials and seven last plagues.

‘ Vision tenth, narrated in chap. xvii. which contains the woman sitting upon the scarlet-coloured beast.

‘ Vision eleventh, narrated in chap. xviii. which contains the fall of Babylon.

‘ Vision twelfth, narrated in chap. xix. which contains the marriage of the lamb.

‘ Vision thirteenth, narrated in chap. xx. which contains the reign of Christ for a thousand years on earth.

‘ And vision fourteenth, narrated in chap. xxi. and xxii. which contains the new Jerusalem.’ Vol. i. p. ix.

As many of these prophecies have been already fulfilled,
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history is appealed to for their import; and the subjoined chronological notes are applied to the whole.—

‘ All these visions are marked, and their import explained in the commentary. A great part of this book contains prophecies which have been fulfilled before the present time. The true meaning of these may therefore be learned more minutely from the actual events as they are recorded in history. The vision of the six seals predicted events which have since actually happened, from the days of the apostle John to the year of Christ 325; and the seventh seal opens up the succeeding period. The vision of the six trumpets predicted events which have taken place from the year of Christ 325 to the year 1090; and the seventh trumpet opens up the following period. In point of time, chapters i. iv. v. x. and xv. which are introductory, comprehend general periods of time, as extensive as the particular chapters do to which they are introductory. Chapters ii. and iii. are historical of the actual state of the seven Christian churches then in Asia, about the year of Christ 95. Chapters vi. viii. and ix. predicted events, the last of which took place before the year of Christ 1100. Chapter vii. predicts events which run from the year of Christ 325 to the year 2000. Chapter xi. the two witnesses prophesying in sackcloth; chap. xii. the woman in the wilderness; chap. xiii. the beast with the seven heads and ten horns, with crowns on his horns, and the name of blasphemy on his heads; and chap. xvi. the seven vials, all predict contemporary events, which run parallel to one another from the year of Christ 756 to the year 1999: so that, in this year, 1790, 1034 years of the time are run, and only 209 years remain to complete all the events predicted in these four chapters. Chap. xiv. predicts events which shall happen in the end of the year of Christ 1999 and the beginning of the year 2000. Chap. xvii. is an explanation of the predictions in chap. xiii. and therefore relates to the same period from 756 to 1999. Chap. xviii. predicts and describes an event which shall happen in the end of the year 1999. Chap. xix. predicts one which shall take place in the year 2000. And chapters xx. xxi. xxii. predict and describe events which shall happen from the year 2000 to the year 3000, with short, and in point of time indefinite, hints of the state of the world after the year 3000; of a final judgement, and of a future and eternal state.’
Vol. i. p. xii.

After a variety of pertinent observations on the conduct of the work, Dr. Johnston thus expresses himself of ecclesiastical establishments—

‘ Perhaps even in this enlightened and liberal age, bigots to the church of Rome may be offended at the application of many of the predictions to the papal hierarchy, and the more so that it is so striking.

striking. I assure them that it is no pleasure to me to say any thing that is bad of any person, or of any establishment, whether civil or religious; but, when writing upon the word of God, and for the public, I must say the truth, whoever shall be displeased with it. Perhaps some bigots of that church of which I have the happiness to be a member, or of some other Protestant churches or sects may be displeased, on the other hand, that I have written so favourably of the character and future expectations of well meaning individuals of the church of Rome, as on ch. xiv. ver. 9, 10, 11. and in other passages.

‘ I have in substance said, and I here say it again, that I know no external church in the world, in the present period, which is in every thing perfectly Christian; that the real church of Christ, at present on earth, consists of all those scattered individuals, in every land, and of every external denomination, who, as in chap. vii. are “ God’s sealed servants,” whom “ the Lord knows to be his, “ and who name the name of Christ, and depart from evil.” Unmoved by the censures of bigots of every church, I have said what the voice of scripture in general, of this book in particular, and of reason and experience uniformly says, that those individuals, of every external denomination, who are wise and good men, whom the Lord who cannot err knows to be his people, are the true worshippers of God, are sanctified by the spirit of God, and shall be finally saved by the mercy of God through the mediation of Christ; and that no external church or profession can render foolish and wicked individuals, if they live and die of that character, true worshippers of God in this world, or finally holy and happy in a future state.’ Vol. i. p. xxi.

This Commentary, it may be noticed, is more prolix than necessity strictly required; but the insertion of practical observations makes a part of the plan; and the author appears in them to advantage. The instance that follows may serve as a specimen—

‘ I am of opinion, that men are said to know the depths of Satan, when by his temptation they are brought to commit sins and crimes under the mask of religion and law: it was thus that Jezebel and the elders and nobles of Israel unjustly took away the life and vineyard of Naboth, under the mask of religion and the form of law, 1 Kings xxi. 7—14.; to which, in my opinion, reference is made here. To make men impious under the mask of religion, and unjust under the shelter of law, is the very depth of Satan’s art of deceiving, a depth too from which he draws out temptations in every age and country, in this way he leads men to the greatest length in sin, and keeps them for a long time in the practice of it, because he deceives both them and the generality of the men of the world around them. However bad their actions are, neither they nor

the world see their impiety and malignity when they stand connected with religion : thus for instance, all the shocking barbarities and injustice of the croisades, instead of shocking the perpetrators or spectators, were considered by both as the most glorious actions, because connected with and viewed as a part of religion : thus too, all persecutions for conscience sake, and all pious frauds, as they are called, are for the same reason, not offensive to superstitious and enthusiastic men : thus in despotic governments, civil and criminal laws are often made inconsistent with the natural and unalienable rights of men, and with the laws of God ; and men go on sinning against the laws of God and violating the rights of man, without ever thinking that they are doing wrong, merely because they are acting according to the laws of their country. Even in the freest countries, there may be some laws and customs by which men are led heedlessly to practise cruelty and injustice. Suppose a merchant in the African trade should employ sailors to pick up and sell for slaves all the poor men they could meet with in the streets of London or Liverpool, would not his conduct shock himself, shock mankind around him, and make him be hissed out of society, even though the laws of the land were not to call him to account ? How happens it then, that, without shocking himself or his countrymen, he can employ sailors to pick up and sell for slaves hundreds of poor men on the coast of Guinea ? it is because in the last place, he violates the natural rights of man under the shelter of law.—Probably both may be comprehended under the depths of Satan. Christ assures all the members of this church who are not infected by these errors, that nothing shall ever be binding upon them in matters of religion, except these things which are already binding upon them by the sacred scriptures, these things by which they have hitherto regulated their faith, charity, service, patience, and works ; and he exhorts them to hold these fast till he come, that is, till he shall come to put an end to their state of discipline by their death.’ Vol. i. p. 89.

For the Commentary at large, we refer to the work.

Travels before the Flood. An interesting Oriental Record of Men and Manners in the antediluvian World, interpreted in Fourteen Evening Conversations, between the Caliph of Bagdad and his Court. Translated from the Arabic. 2 Vols. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1796.

IF Volney's Ruins, Swift's Tale of a Tub, and other writings of a similar kind, (says the editor of this work) are allowed the merit of inculcating important truths, and conveying instruction blended with entertainment, it is humbly presumed, that the present work, replete with wholesome lessons to nations and their rulers,

rulers, will equally make good its claim to public interest and patronage.' Vol. i. p. iv.

How far the expectations of the author are likely to be gratified by the patronage of the public, we shall not take upon ourselves to determine. Certain it is, that works, possessed of a far smaller portion of real humour, and sound good sense, than is to be met with in these two volumes, have frequently made their way to universal favour and applause. In the character of Mahal, the brother of Noah, we frequently see a masterly hand; it is thus introduced—

‘Noah, his sons and daughters never turned their eyes to the seducing vallies; the only one of his family, who looked down curious and inquisitive, was Mahal, his brother-in-law. This Mahal was one of those people, who are not satisfied that they exist and live happy, but who also want to know why, to what end they exist, and whether they are happy in the right manner, or may become happier and better still in another way. He was also of a violent peevish and obstinate temper, and bore in his bosom the seeds of doubts, which were the more tormenting to him, since he was equally deficient in bright intellect, and in the true faith that consists in entire resignation. To him it appeared very strange, that old Noah should thus clamber and slift about upon a mountain, timidly shunning and secluding himself from all the rest of human kind. Did he ask Noah why he did so, he would answer him: “Such is the will of the god of our fathers. Those have forsaken him, and should we forsake him, too, and none of this mortal race be his adherent?”

‘The more decisive such an answer must appear, the less will it satisfy the curious enquirer. The first transient thought respecting the difference between Noah’s family and the inhabitants of the vallies had rendered Mahal unsusceptible of pure happiness. Now one thought engendered another, and he fared no better than all reasoners; he began with soft and timorous doubts, and terminated in murmurs and dispiritedness. He had heard a great deal of the inhabitants of the cities; the fame of their mighty men and their exploits had also reached his ears; he thought them huge giants, and reflected upon their deeds in awful admiration.’ Vol. i. p. 36.

To satisfy his curiosity, he descends to the valley inhabited by the children of Cain. His first adventures are in the city of Enoch, the seat of refined voluptuousness.

‘Thus speaks Mahal in the record: Enoch is the city where men have fixed the scene of their turbulence. A river traverses it which they call the Arrow, and over it they have raised an arch of stones, which is reported to be the work of Gedim; and, to judge from its loftiness, it is more the production of mighty spirits than

of weak men. But weak as they are, they can nevertheless do great things, if they unite together in an undertaking. Their caves, which they denominate houses, are very neatly furnished, decorated, and abounding in all that is convenient. Each cave has its door, that may be locked, to prevent any body's seeing what goes forward in it. If one goes to another, he marks his coming by a loud knock at the door, for fear of surprising the master of the house in some bad deed.

‘ I am afraid to cross the multitudes that throng the streets; and think always they may begin some bad quarrel among themselves, as I have remarked at my son-in-law's, that they cruelly hate one another, and that the sultan himself durst not show his pale, fullen and peevish face every where.

‘ There is a great number of persons at Enoch, whose hands, with the aid of various tools, form all kinds of things for use and pleasure, from wood, stone, metal, and threads. I saw myself a young man that formed a figure from stone, and now I laugh at my fear of the stony image they call love. I have certainly seen the same image at Enoch, but no such interpretation has been given me of it as that I received from the inhabitants of the fields. Singular, yes very singular it appears that they who work most are the poorest, and inhabit the most miserable and the dirtiest holes. Those in the fields, I hear, labour much harder, and are still poorer; and those who treated me so well on quitting the mountains are not, I am told, country people, but citizens who only went out to amuse themselves, and see the former toil. On the other hand, there are many persons in this city, and especially at court, that are very rich, have plenty of every thing, and do no work at all. They call these the better-born; but how they live I can't conceive, particularly as they want so many things; nor have I any idea how they manage it to be begotten and born better than the rest. Others go by the title of the sultan's officers of state, most of whom are of the better-born class, and doubly well off. Others work with their wit and tongue for those who have no wit, nor know how to use their tongue; and they likewise stand very well. Others buy of the workmen and labourers in town and country all their produce at a very low price, and then sell it very high. He is the richest man who purchases cheapest and sells dearest. I wonder that they make the poor give a very high price for all they buy, and that the great and the chiefs get every thing much cheaper, and frequently don't even pay for what they have. This perhaps makes them sell every thing so very dear to the poor: and the poor are, in fact, too timid in presence of the rich; and if rich men wrong them, the poor hardly dare mention it.

‘ Now I perceive why the better-born are so rich and do nothing: the poor work for them, and often one wealthy man keeps many hundreds, who work for him, and whom he does not call

his supporters, but his inferiors. Things always go by a different name here from what they actually are.

‘ The sultan and my daughter spend and waste as much as must require some thousands of hands to work for them. It is nothing to me; but what provokes me, is, that the rich and idle despise, and frequently even ill-treat those who work for them. Those labourers and workmen must be very good-natured indeed; else how could they put up with their miserable pittance, and not wrest from others that plenty which they first gave them? All those to whom I have hitherto talked on this subject, tell me, that such was the will of the mighty Gedim, and that sultan Pooh enforces the hard mandate by his judges and the swords of his soldiers. It is very well that the multitude are afraid of those maimed judges and those armed soldiers; else I should not like to be one of the better-born and rich.

‘ The artists who create images from stones, and those who imitate men, animals and trees with various colours, besides the men versed in letters, were quite satisfied with me. I loudly admired them, and seemed surprised at all they said. My companions told the puny sultan of it, who reprehended me bitterly; alleging, that my plainness disgraces him, that no great man ought to admire any thing, and much less to manifest his sentiments to his inferiors, should even some object extort his inward admiration. He probably is affronted, because I don’t praise such figures as resemble him; and whenever he does not show his peevish and affected face to the court, he shuts himself up, to form images much stiffer and punier than himself. I cannot praise these like his courtiers, nor can I praise any thing he says or performs.’ Vol. i. P. 110.

After visiting the commercial Iradians, whose sultan (at the time of his arrival in their city) —

‘ Was assembled with his counsellors in the divan, to deliberate upon the most important, newest, most singular and unheard of thing on which a sultan has ever deliberated in his divan. Your highness will perhaps believe, that the wise men of Irad enquired, “ Whether it would be better to wear a long or a short beard? What was virtue, and whether it was wanted in a state? Whether it was innate or taught? Whether the sultan was on the throne for the sake of his subjects, or whether his subjects existed for the sake of him? Whether it would be best for men to be free or to be slaves, as in the latter case they must still earn their bread? Whether the dignity of sultan was an office like every other office, or only a bright sinecure? If man belonged to the beasts of burden, how large a load he would in such a case be able to carry?” But none of these, lord of believers, made the subject of the sultan’s deliberations.

‘ *The Caliph.* I am not much disposed now to guess, though I suppose the sultan consulted how to render his people very happy and contented. If I have not guessed right, I command you to tell me immediately what it was.

‘ *Ben Hafi.* I obey your highness. Sultan Zobar of Irad deliberated with his counsellors, how to contrive to get into his hands all the gold of his subjects; that is to say, how to make himself chief treasurer, cashier, and keeper of all their gain and revenues, and only to leave them as much at their disposal as might enable them to work on in his service, and get more.

‘ *The Caliph.* Thou railest, Ben Hafi! can you call a thing that happens every day a novelty unheard of?

‘ *Ben Hafi.* I meant, that before the flood it was unheard of. I know very well that sultans manage it quite differently since.

‘ *The Caliph.* What occasion was there for the sultan of Irad to consult his divan about seizing all the gold of his subjects? He only needed to take, as they were obliged to give; and my viziers can prove, that all they possessed belonged to the sultan, though I am rather doubtful of the truth of their assertion.’ Vol. i. p. 157.

Mahal next proceeds to Gin, the politeness of whose inhabitants was proverbial in the antediluvian world.

‘ Mahal soon collected, “ That the empire of Gin was a land of friendship and love : that at Gin, every body, from the sultan to the meanest subject, lived to please himself : that the word *self* was the tutelar god worshipped by the whole country : that by this means the union of the state at large was the stronger, since every prudent Giner’s *self* wanted the *self* of his neighbour to supply certain indispensable wants. This individual *self* guided of course all the actions of the Giners, who were on this account the most refined nation in the world, as they possessed the art to conceal those motives of human actions in so fine and dextrous a manner, that in no country of the world the words, sacrifice, generosity, disinterestedness, friendship, and love, were more in vogue than at Gin, though in reality they were never displayed, unless some raw, uncultivated being would here or there gratify the animal instincts of his simple nature : that every Giner, to save appearances, took those words for a standard of truth, to give to social life a fine glittering varnish of politeness and mannerliness; and that he who let another perceive, that he considered those words as empty show, passed for an unsociable being, unworthy of human intercourse :—but that all this had no influence upon the genuine actions of the Giners, every one of whom acted contrary to what he said to another; and that it was rare for a Giner to ask his fellow why he had not acted up to his word.

“ Thus, for instance,” added a spruce Giner, who seemed very eager to be the principal teacher of Mahal—“ thus speaks a Giner,
to

to another who solicits his assistance, but of whom his *self* has nought to fear or to hope: 'I regret from the bottom of my heart, my dear friend, that I cannot be of any service to you; which in plain Arabic is saying, What cares my *self* for thy *self*? My *self* is very well, and thou canst do it neither good nor harm.'

"Thus, the sultan saith: 'I have the happiness to reign over the Giners for their sake!' but his heart says, 'I reign over the Giners for my sake; they are my property!' Vol. ii. p. 28.

We have already too far exceeded our bounds in the extracts given, to say any thing of the 'country of the philosophers;' and in truth, that part of the book appears to us to labour under some obscurity; there is likewise something reprehensible in the air of profaneness assumed in some of the conversations of the philosophers; and, as we believe the design of the author to be good, we regret that it should not be always sufficiently obvious, as not to hazard its being mistaken.

A Treatise on the Epidemic Puerperal Fever of Aberdeen. By Alexander Gordon, M. D. Physician to the Dispensary. 8vo. 3s. Sewed. Robinsons. 1795.

WHAT has been hitherto done by writers on this department of the profession, in order to extend the history, or determine the nature of the puerperal fever, Dr. Gordon considers of very little use; he therefore *here* undertakes to investigate the cause, ascertain the nature, and establish the treatment of the disease.

How far he may have succeeded in the difficult task which he has imposed on himself, we shall see as we proceed in the examination of his work.

We most readily admit the propriety of the doctor's reasons for bringing his labours before the public. For, if an extensive practice has really enabled him to make important discoveries concerning the disease in question, it is unquestionably a duty to make them generally known—

'The observations, which I have to offer, are of the utmost importance to society, and I am only diffident of my ability to express them in the manner they deserve. I have, however, made an attempt, which, I hope, will meet with a favourable reception from the public; especially, as I have advanced no opinion that is not an obvious conclusion, immediately resulting from facts, and as all the facts may be depended on.' p. vii.

This, however, is only a part of what the doctor has done, as is evident from the following passage—

'Copious bleeding, which was found so efficacious in curing the disease, has been recommended both by Dr. Leake and Dr. Denman;

Denman; but the former has recommended large and practised small bleedings; and, though the latter has recommended large bleeding, yet he has left the quantity undetermined. This defect is supplied in the following work; for I have both limited the quantity of blood necessary to be taken away, and fixed the time when the taking away of that quantity will certainly cure.' p. viii.

On the history of this fever we can discover nothing new, except it be the extraordinary assertion that the author's brother practitioners were unacquainted with the writings of Hulme, Denman, and Leake, whom he considers as the best writers on the disease. It is hardly to be supposed that all the *accoucheurs* in so large a town as Aberdeen could have been altogether ignorant of the opinions of those authors.

The symptoms which our author has stated as attending this fever, differ in no material respect from those which have been described by the generality of writers on the same complaint. The following is the principal distinction which the doctor has made respecting the period at which the disorder becomes incurable—

'When called in the beginning of the disease, that is, within six, or eight hours after the attack, I was often able to put an immediate stop to it, even when the pulse was at the rate of 140. But when the patient had been ill, twelve, or twenty-four hours before I was called, I was not able to bring the disease to an immediate conclusion; the most I could do, in such cases, was to check its violence, and overcome it by degrees; for I could seldom bring it to a complete termination before the fifth day.

'But, when the patient had been ill, for a longer space than twenty-four hours before I was sent for, I generally found, that the disease was no longer in the power of art.' p. 13.

We come now to the clinical part of the work, which is that on which the advantage of the author's doctrine of puerperal fever ought chiefly to rest. In most of the cases which are here detailed, there was great soreness and pain about the abdominal region, with an *extremely quick pulse*, such as from one hundred and thirty to one hundred and forty strokes in a minute. Of the state of the circulation with regard to hardness, softness, or momentum, the author has not given us the least information, so that we are unable to determine how far the inflammation, supposing it to have existed, was of the active kind. However, from the circumstance of the very great quickness of the pulse, we should be rather inclined to suppose that active inflammation could not be present. The best practical writers describe the pulse to be hard, full, and strong, rather than quick, in cases where inflammation of the active kind takes place.

But let us attend a little more to the doctor's observations and reasonings on the nature of this disease—

‘ Since the state of child-bed is the conclusion of a great process, which begins with conception and ends with labour, and since an inflammatory disposition of body attends the whole process, from beginning to end; is it reasonable to think that there would be an immediate transition, a sudden change, from inflammatory to putrid, at the close of the process? It is surely much more natural to think, that the same disposition will be continued, and that the commotion excited by labour, and the cordials, so commonly given on that occasion, will rather increase than change the inflammatory state.’ p. 52.

Satisfactory as the author may conceive this reasoning to be, there are probably many practitioners of considerable experience who will dispute its solidity. Whatever disposition to inflammation there may be during the period of gestation, at the moment of delivery a very great change takes place, and from the sudden removal of pressure or distension, as well as from the loss of blood, and other causes of the same kind, a considerable degree of inanition and debility must and necessarily does occur. That, in some instances, however, in strong robust habits, the contrary state may exist, cannot be denied; but these we conceive to be comparatively few.

However, as we perfectly agree with the author in thinking that ‘ there is no argument like matter of fact,’ we shall consider the proofs that are brought in support of this doctrine, which cannot, as we are told, be shaken by ‘ any theory.’

We could rather have wished that it had stood the test of experience, because upon this depends its utility. But we are afraid the author's account of his success will not afford any very strong encouragement to the adoption of his evaculatory plan of practice; at least, not to the extent he appears to have carried it.

The death of twenty-eight patients out of seventy-seven, or more than one-third of the whole, can never surely be regarded as an example of the *uncommon success* of any method of treatment.

After attempting to show that the disease is of the inflammatory kind, the author proceeds to inquire concerning the specific nature of the inflammation; and here he adopts the opinion of Peautau, and some writers of a more recent date, who consider the puerperal fever to be of an erysipelatous nature—

‘ I will not venture, (says he) positively to assert, that the puerperal fever and erysipelas are precisely of the same specific nature;

but that they are connected, that there is an analogy between them, and that they are concomitant epidemics, I have unquestionable proofs. For these two epidemics began in Aberdeen at the same time, and afterwards kept pace together; they both arrived at their acmé together, and they both ceased at the same time.' p. 55.

On the similarity of this disease to that of erysipelas, the doctor's reasoning is rather curious; we shall therefore lay a sample of it before our readers—

'The analogy of the puerperal fever with erysipelas, will explain why it always seizes women after, and not before delivery. For, at the time when the erysipelas was epidemic, almost every person, admitted into the hospital of this place, with a wound, was, soon after his admission, seized with erysipelas in the vicinity of the wound. The same consequence followed the operations of surgery: and the cause is obvious; for the infectious matter, which produces erysipelas, was, at that time, readily absorbed by the lymphatics, which were then open to receive it.

'Just so with respect to the puerperal fever; women escape it till after delivery, for, till that time, there is no inlet open to receive the infectious matter which produces the disease. But, after delivery, the matter is readily and copiously admitted by the numerous patulous orifices, which are open to imbibe it, by the separation of the placenta from the uterus.

'And thus, a question, which has given rise to various speculations and conjectures, is solved, in a very simple and satisfactory manner.

'The connexion of the two diseases is still further confirmed by the great extent of the inflammation, and rapid progress of the disease.

'And the same connexion is evident from this circumstance, that a very frequent crisis of the disease is by an external erysipelas; which is a proof that there is a metastasis, or translation, of the inflammation, from the internal to the external parts.' p. 56.

The observations on the seat of this complaint contain nothing of novelty in them. It has been invariably the opinion of writers on the puerperal fever, that the seat of the disease was in the investing membranes of the abdomen, though they have not been decided as to the particular part.

On the causes of the disease, Dr. Gordon is more full. He contends that, in the present instances, it originated from a *specific contagion*. We are, however, but little benefited by this information, since he has not pointed out the physical qualities, or the laws by which the operation of this contagion is governed.

But the principal point on which our author differs from other writers, is in his plan of cure. And here he differs
very

very widely indeed. His plan is depletion in its utmost degree. He has already told us that the disease depends upon *erysipelatous inflammation*, in which, every practitioner, the least conversant in the treatment of such cases, knows general bleeding cannot be practised without the greatest danger. Yet in these circumstances, and in the puerperal state, we are advised by our author 'never to take away less than twenty or twenty-four ounces of blood at one bleeding.' And this is not all: purging is also to be added, and both of them repeated until the disease be subdued. Surely no disciple of the immortal Sangrado, ever removed the vital fluid in more copious quantities.

The remarks on the prevention of the disease are not by any means important. What the author has observed from Lind, respecting the destruction of contagion, is not to be depended on, as Dr. Smyth has shown, in his excellent Treatise on the Jail Distemper. Towards the conclusion of this chapter, the doctor observes, 'that the *cure* was anticipated before the *attack* of the disease.' How a disease can be cured before it exists, we cannot pretend to determine. It would seem to us to be a sort of *ish* method of cure.

In an Appendix, the doctor endeavours still more strongly to impress the minds of practitioners with the advantage of his plan of treatment. He thinks those large bleedings necessary in every case; 'for, says he, whenever the disease is distinctly marked, I hold bleeding to be indispensably necessary in every case, being decidedly of opinion, that it can never be omitted with impunity.' After this we are told, that the conduct of the practitioner is to be guided by the *stage* of the disease, and not by the state of the pulse; that he is 'to attend to the symptoms without being solicitous about the cause;' that a diarrhoea, in this complaint, 'is entirely critical,' or at least, 'it is always either critical, or an effort to a crisis.'

On these different points, the author is however by no means so precise or accurate as their importance demands.

Upon the whole, we are apprehensive that the practice of copious bleeding, which is strongly recommended in this tract, will not be found so highly advantageous as the author seems to think it. If the disease should, however, be found, upon more extensive observation, to require such excessive bleedings as those which are here advised, the inflammation on which it depends will unquestionably be determined to be of a very different kind, from that which Dr. Gordon supposes to be the cause of the complaint.

Christian Philosophy: or, an Attempt to display the Evidence and Excellence of revealed Religion. By Viceimus Knox, D. D. late Fellow of St. John's College, Oxford, &c. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Dilly. 1795.

FROM the perusal of the doctor's former writings, we took up these volumes with no small portion of expectation; but truth compels us to confess, that their contents have greatly disappointed us. The style of them is inflated, the mass of the work incoherent, and the subordinate parts void of precision. Enthusiasm is the chief characteristic, rather than sound judgment. Perhaps, this unreserved declaration may be considered by Dr. Knox as 'the rash censure of the thoughtless, who rudely and hastily condemn, what they scarcely allow themselves even time to understand:' but that we will leave the reader to determine.

As a great part of his book is made up of extracts from others, the doctor begins with entreating 'all who honour it with any degree of their attention, duly to consider the AUTHORITIES, human as well as scriptural, on which it is founded:'—a request that to us seems somewhat extraordinary, since it involves the implication, that human authority is wanted to give scriptural its effect. That the genuine doctrine of the gospel is a most momentous subject, we freely admit; and, for the reality of this conviction, refer to our uniform efforts; but we cannot help adding that, to see a respectable writer disserve the cause he befriends, is a source of painful reflection. In thus expressing our opinion, we have in view the leading principle, and not the work *in toto*; for the sentiments of the author, in several of its parts, have afforded us much satisfaction. The following extract will present a favourable idea of the whole—

'The divine energy announced to mankind in the glad tidings of the gospel, under the name of gifts and grace, operating, now and for ever more, on every human heart prepared to admit it, appears, from what has been advanced in these pages, to be the living, everlasting gospel, still accompanying the written word, and conveying illumination, sanctification, consolation. It would not cease to operate, being sent down from heaven on our Lord's ascension, even if it were possible that ink and paper, by whose instrumentality the written word is transmitted, were utterly lost. It originates from omnipotence, and cannot entirely rely, for its continuance or effect, on means merely human, weak, contingent, and perishable. He who once views the gospel of Jesus Christ in this light; he who considers it as a vital influence from heaven, and recognizes its energy on his heart, as he will do, in consequence of prayer and obedience, will want no other proof

proof of the truth and excellence of christianity. He will have the witness in himself; and stand in no need of the schoolman's folios, the verbal subtleties of the critic, or the acrimonious disputes of the polemic. He will find, that some of the most learned men, the most voluminous writers on theological subjects, were totally ignorant of christianity. He will find that they were ingenious heathen philosophers, assuming the name of Christians, and forcibly paganizing christianity, for the sake of pleasing the world, of extending their fame, and enjoying secular honours and lucrative pre-eminence *.

"Godly persons," that is, Christian philosophers, are described, in those articles which all churchmen have most solemnly assented to, as "such as feel in themselves the spirit of Christ, mortifying the works of the flesh, and drawing up their minds to high and heavenly things." He who feels the spirit in him, will be conscious of possessing the pearl of great price, and will lock it up in the sanctuary of his heart, as his richest treasure, never to be despoiled of it by the seducing arts of false philosophy; never to exchange that pure gold, which is the same yesterday, to-day, and for ever, for the base metal of worldly politicians, who may endeavour, as they have done, to make truth itself alter her inimitable nature, to serve the varying purposes of temporary ambition. Those doctrines of christianity, which were true under the first Charles, will be considered, notwithstanding the subtle attempts of politicians, equally true under the abandoned profligacy of a second; or in subsequent reigns, when it was discovered by the court divines, that christianity was as old as the creation, and the religion of grace, a mere republication of the religion of nature. The substance of christianity can survive the wreck of empires, the demolition of temples made with hands, and the dismission of a superstitious or a time-serving priesthood. The living temple of the heart, where the Holy Spirit fixes his shrine, will stand unimpaired, amidst the fallen columns of marble. The kingdom of heaven will remain unshaken, amidst all the convulsions of this changeable globe. We are told, that the gates of hell shall not prevail against it; and, though it should happen, in any country of christendom, that the rulers should be infidels, and the visible church abolished; yet while there are human creatures left alive in it, the church of Christ may still flourish. The doctrine of grace is the only doctrine

* "There are those," says the apostle, "who seek their own, and not the things of Jesus Christ." Phil. ii. 21.

Such as these are called by Ignatius *χριστομαποροι*, dealers and chapmen in Christ. Unprofitable truths they will have no more to do with, than traders with unsaleable commodities.

Bishop Horne says, "Those clergymen, who betray the cause of their master, in order to be promoted in the church, are guilty of the worst kind of simony, and pay their souls for the purchase of their preferment."

which tends to preserve christianity in the world, independent of the caprice and pride of statesmen and philosophers, or the wickedness of the people. Who shall be impious enough to maintain that God cannot preserve, by his own methods, his own dispensation?

‘ Civil and ecclesiastical power in union, together with the assistance of early education, may, indeed, retain, in a nation, the forms and the name of christianity; but “the proper force of religion, that force which subdues the mind, which awes the conscience, and influences the private conduct, as well as the public,” will only be preserved by a vital experimental sense of the divine energy of the Holy Ghost, whom we declare, with one voice, in our churches, whenever we repeat the Nicene creed, to be the “Lord and giver of life.” Vol. ii. p. 452.

Yet, notwithstanding the stress laid upon the evidence of the SPIRIT, in opposition to that of the LETTER, Dr. KNOX makes no scruple to assert, that ‘the reader of his book, who is not firmly settled in the faith by BETTER EVIDENCE than any *human learning* can afford, by studying with attention, adequate to the subject, Dr. TOWNSON, and Dr. LARDNER on the Gospels, and Mr. WEST on the Resurrection, will conclude that there is cause sufficient for every pious, humble man, to give his full assent to all the essential parts of the gospel history; to be rooted in faith, to rest in hope, and to abound in charity.’

Amongst the strictures on Paine's *Age of Reason*, which has been so repeatedly and so ably confuted, the annexed observations are peculiar—

‘ Mr. Paine professes to be a believer in God, and a friend to man. It is, indeed, astonishing, that an advocate for the rights of man should set his face against the gospel of Jesus Christ; for it is certain that the gospel is the book, of all that were ever written, that favours most the rights of man, and the cause of equal liberty. Jesus Christ abolished slavery in Europe. Jesus Christ has humbled the rich and mighty. Jesus Christ has given a consequence to the poor, which they never possessed amid the boasted freedom of Greece and Rome. Jesus Christ has done more to destroy the insolent distinctions which arose from the spirit of tyranny, than was ever done before or after him; and Jesus Christ suffered death for this benefaction to all mankind, as a seditious innovator, and an enemy to Cæsar. Jesus Christ is therefore entitled to the gratitude and veneration of every friend to truth, justice, and humanity, even if he were no more than a man, and his religion untrue. What have Sydney, Hampden, Locke, done or said, with such effect, in the cause of liberty, and in favour of the mass of mankind, as Jesus Christ? Let then all the friends of liberty and man be lovers of Jesus Christ; and let not their zeal for reforming the corruptions of

of Christianity, caused by statesmen, wishing to render it subservient to political views, lead them to renounce the comfortable, liberal, equalizing doctrines of the genuine gospel.

‘The gospel recommends peace, and infallibly produces, by the spirit’s benign influence, such dispositions of mind, as must of necessity, if they were to prevail among the rulers of the world, put an end to all offensive war. It has not yet done so, for it has not yet sufficiently prevailed among the rulers of the world. But it has certainly softened the rigours of war; a favourable presage of its future efficacy, in totally abolishing it.

‘I wish Mr. Paine, as a politician and a philanthropist, if he be such, not to oppugn the great promoter of peace and liberty. As a fellow man (I wish I could add, a fellow christian,) I warn him, from the kindest motives, to beware lest he be guilty of blasphemy against the Holy Ghost.

‘Mr. Paine himself says, “The great trait in the character of Jesus Christ is philanthropy.” Why should Mr. Paine, then, oppose the prevalence of his benign doctrines? Christianity is a friend to order, but an enemy to despotism of every kind and degree. Why should Mr. Paine, then, join with the wicked despots of the earth, in the endeavour to exterminate christianity? The late king of Prussia, the greatest despot and butcher of mankind, was the prince of the unbelievers. He made infidelity a fashion in France; and behold the consequences! May they never extend to this country; where, God grant that liberty may continue unimpaired by despotism or licentiousness; and religion flourish, uncorrupted by hypocrisy or superstition, and unshaken by the assaults of infidelity.’
Vol. ii. p. 558.

Address to a Young Lady on her Entrance into the World. 2 Vols.
8vo. 10s. Boards. Hookham and Carpenter. 1796.

THE emancipation of a young lady from the confinement of lessons and masters, and her entrance on the world of fashion and folly, makes so important an æra in her life, and so dangerous a one too, that the young adventurer cannot be too strongly guarded by the virtuous spells of good advice and instruction, against the blighting influences her good dispositions will be exposed to.—At this momentous period, the tender parent, the assiduous governess, should redouble their efforts to leave the young mind with the strongest impression of those principles, whose firmness is soon to be brought to the test of real occasion and arduous trial.

With such views these volumes are presented to the young female world. In the Introduction they are said to be the production of a governess, on the point of leaving a beloved

CRIT. REV. VOL. XVIII. October, 1796. M pupil

pupil of rank and fortune. Under these circumstances we should naturally expect much appropriate advice, and a close observation of female manners, if not a finished system of female ethics. We confess, therefore, we were disappointed to find that the work is divided into separate essays, so like to downright sermons, that it might lead a reader inclined to scepticism, to doubt the reality of the occasion on which they are said to have been written.

The subjects treated of in the first volume are—*On reading the Scriptures.*—*On the Sabbath.*—*On Truth.*—*On Content*;—in the second—*On Fortitude.*—*On Pride.*—*On the Duties of Children to Parents.*—They are good serious discourses, and contain truths important to male and female, to young and old; but, except in the last, we discern no peculiar suitability, and hardly any reference, to the female character or destination. It is not probable, therefore, that young women will read them with any greater degree of interest, than they would any other good treatises on the same subjects. The duties of children to parents, though respecting both sexes, are for many reasons more peculiarly binding on daughters,—and the tender attentions which a mother may claim from a child of her own sex, particularly if residing with her, are very properly and forcibly insisted on in the last essay, which we therefore recommend to the serious perusal of those young ladies into whose hands it may fall. We were glad to find the author solicitous for the comfort, not only of mothers, but of grandmothers, who are too often treated with an unfeeling contempt and neglect by those young people, who seldom fail to remember when grown up, that their mother allowed them to despise their grandmother, and to reflect that she was daughter to that grandmother. We cannot help thinking that if parents were more solicitous to inculcate on their children an affectionate respect and deference for their elder relatives, they would often find the advantage of it in being enabled to manage and bring up their children, without the venal and therefore less desirable assistance of teachers and governesses.

‘ Is there then no source of comfort left on earth for those who, labouring through the decline of life, feel a solicitude for the consoling attendance of their progeny, hardly less urgent than nature would suffer, were the nourishment necessary to existence withheld? Must claims the most sacred be made but to incur neglect? Must hopes which arise from fondness, be formed only to be killed by disappointment? There may still a resource be found amid these mortifications; a second generation is rising: the grand-daughters cannot yet be pre-occupied by the duties of fashion; they are not

yet the slaves of dissipation; they have leisure to furnish some of those consolations which a mother's unremitting engagements deny her the opportunity of supplying: their natural gaiety may cheer the gloom of solitude, their vivacity and fond assiduity lighten the weary mind of its lassitude, and sooth the heavy hours of languor and pain.

' Shall that age which sees its youth renewed in its grandchildren, be denied the enjoyment of their society? Can there be any impediments to so dear and just a pleasure? Alas! there are impediments, raised even by her whose personal attention to a parent ought to prevent the want of any other gratification. She deems it too heavy a task for young people to spend a few hours of each day in the joyless company of an infirm old woman. The mother, the gay, the giddy votary of pleasure, has herself too great a dread of such society, and too much tenderness for her offspring, to think such a punishment any part of their duty.

' But beware, ye unthinking parents, how you inculcate such a lesson of inhumanity. How will your aching hearts accuse and condemn you, when the conduct it teaches, recoils upon yourselves? Vainly then, shall ye regret, having furnished a plea for insensibility, and supplied selfishness with a shield to cover it from shame. Besides the impolicy of such a lesson, the notions on which it is founded are nothing less than true.

' Youth never finds dullness where it has exercise for its feelings; and every tender and generous sensation is roused by a consciousness of power to communicate relief to the sufferings of a person who is at once the object of pity, respect, and affection.

' Let us imagine for a moment, an aged female surrounded by her grandchildren, who are assembled purposely to contribute to her amusement: how will they be elated by the flattering idea of being able to communicate pleasure to a superior? How melted into tenderness by the sufferings and the fondness of that superior? How will the countenance of the sufferer be brightened by the complacency and satisfaction which will tranquillize her mind! She will listen to their little narratives, and lively sallies of imagination, with the delight of partial fondness: their emulation to win her attention, and to engross her notice, will sooth, while it diverts her: in her desire to gratify each little candidate ambitious of her favour, she forgets her sorrows, and catches from the objects before her an intermission of suffering, that seems an earnest of returning health.'

Vol. ii. p. 165.

Equally just are the writer's observations on the fastidiousness which leads so many to lay aside the appellations of relationship—

' On this principle, it is, that I object to a growing custom (as yet, indeed, far from general in its influence) of suppressing the

forms by which the ties of nature are expressed and acknowledged. The blended merit of politeness and affection, every one feels and confesses: then why should an arbitrary caprice be allowed to strike out of their vocabulary, words that are friendly to the preservation of reciprocal attachment? I do not mean to plead the recall of that banished exile, cousin, nor to vindicate its extensive application in those times, when it was used to recognize the ties of consanguinity through half-a-dozen successive generations: though even on this ground there is room for argument. It is in the nearer relative connections that I am at a loss to conceive what possible advantages can be expected to accrue from substituting those ceremonious epithets, which have been judiciously established, as appendages of rank, and barriers to vulgar familiarity, to such as express those relations. Uncles and aunts, for instance, seem to be hastening down the stream of oblivion after the exploded cousin. Father and mother are not yet exploded; but it is to be feared, they also may suffer banishment from polite society. It is not impossible, that the fastidiousness of fashion should take exception at any terms which are as familiar to the poor as to the rich, and used alike in the cottage and the palace. The first step to this revolution is made by parents themselves, who always designate their children by such titles, or annex to their names such epithets, as belong to the station they hold in society. Will not children follow an example so sanctioned? Will the young be willing to appear with less fashionable indifference upon their entrance on the stage, than is displayed by those who are retiring from it? If the mother blush to pronounce the endearing name of daughter, will not the child in like manner, suppress the appellation, with which habit, from early infancy, had associated ideas of love, gratitude, and respect? Good breeding is ill replaced by ceremony, especially, when this contradicts the inclinations of nature. Where these are consistent with filial sentiments, to substitute mere politeness in their stead, is absurdity and affectation: it conceals what when seen, must excite the most agreeable sentiments, and is absolutely like wearing a mask over a beautiful face." Vol. ii. p. 199.

Though the essay from which we have quoted the foregoing extracts is the only one which has the air of having been originally written with a view to female improvement,—females, as human beings, may peruse the rest of the publication with advantage, if they can be allured to the contemplation of plain truths, neither set in a new light by originality of thinking, nor decorated by any peculiar beauties of style and manner. In one or two places, the expression is rather low, as where the author speaks of that species of lying called *white lying*; and now and then we should object to the sentiment, as where *pride of birth* is declared the most *venial* kind of pride; nor do we see why *card-playing* on a Sunday is more exceptionable than a *Sunday concert*.

A Treatise on the Police of the Metropolis, explaining the various Crimes and Misdemeanors which at present are felt as a Pressure upon the Community; and suggesting Remedies for their Prevention. By a Magistrate, acting for the Counties of Middlesex, &c. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Dilly. 1796.

AMONG the various concerns demanding the vigilance of a government, there is none that approximates to equal importance with an attention to those municipal regulations by which the security and the comfort of a people are best promoted.

Whatever practical deficiencies may have occasionally prevented our own laws from completely assisting those indispensable views, the spirit and the aim of British legislation form a topic of great and deserved encomium; but the most liberal and just principles cannot, without a proper system of application, be productive of full and efficient benefit. It is not to be denied that the cares of revenue, and the transactions of foreign politics, have too often occupied the attention of our legislators, to the exclusion of more material objects, and that the busy and luxurious opulence, introduced by commerce, while it has opened innumerable avenues to fraud and to crimes, has unfortunately neglected to promote those patriotic exertions for the improvement of public morals, which a community has a right to expect from all its enlightened members. He, therefore, who possesses ability and patriotism equal to the performance of this duty, and who is disposed to exercise it in times and under circumstances so forbidding, will be entitled to no inconsiderable rank among the benefactors of his country: if practically acquainted with the duties of a magistrate, his opportunities of information will impart peculiar efficacy to his endeavours; and he will at once enjoy the credit of enterprise, and the prospect of success.

In this arduous but enviable predicament, is the author of the present work *, who, in publishing his opinions, has conferred an obligation on the public that cannot be easily repaid.

After calling the attention of the reader to the magnitude of the commercial and trading concerns of London and its neighbourhood, our author proceeds to account for the extent of the depredations committed on the various branches of individual and public property, by the following, and, as he justly observes, ‘melancholy estimate’

‘Of Persons who are supposed to support themselves in and near the Metropolis by pursuits either criminal—illegal—or immoral.’

1. Professed thieves, burglars, highway robbers, pick-pockets, and river pirates, who are completely profe-

* It is generally, and, we believe, truly, attributed to Mr. Justice Colquhoun.

- lyted,—many of whom have finished their education in the hulks, and some at Botany-Bay.—N. B. There will be a considerable increase of this class on the return of peace, now estimated at about 2,000
2. Professed and known receivers of stolen goods, of whom eight or ten are opulent, 60
 3. Coiners, colourers, dealers, venders, buyers, and utterers of base money, including counterfeit foreign and East India coin, 3,000
 4. Thieves, pilferers and embezzlers who live partly by depredation, and partly by their own occasional labour, 8,000
 5. River pilferers, viz. Fraudulent lumpers, scuffle-hunters, mud-larks, lightermen, riggers, artificers and labourers in the docks and arsenals, 2,500
 6. Itinerant Jews, wandering from street to street, holding out temptations to pilfer and steal, and Jew boys crying bad shillings, who purchase articles stolen by servants, stable boys, &c. &c. generally paying in base money, 2,000
 7. Receivers of stolen goods, from petty pilferers, at old iron shops, store shops, rag and thrum shops, and shops for second-hand apparel, including some fraudulent hostlers, small butchers and pawnbrokers, 4,000
 8. A class of suspicious characters, who live partly by pilfering and passing base money—ostensibly costard-mongers, ass drivers, dustmen, chimney-sweepers, rabbit sellers, fish and fruit sellers, fiash coachmen, bear baiters, dog keepers, (but in fact, dog stealers), &c. &c. 1,000
 9. Persons in the character of menial servants, journeymen, warehouse porters, and under clerks, who are entrusted with property, and who defraud their employers in a little way, under circumstances where they generally elude detection—estimated at about 3,500
 10. A class of swindlers, cheats, and low gamblers, who are composed of idle and dissolute characters who have abandoned every honest pursuit, and who live chiefly by fraudulent transactions in the lottery, as morocco men, ruffians, bludgeon men, clerks and assistants, during the season, who at other times assume the trade of duffers, hawkers and pedlars, horse dealers, gamblers with E. O. tables at fairs, utterers of base money, horse stealers, &c. &c. 7,440
 11. Various other classes of cheats not included in the above, 1,000
 12. Fraudulent and dissolute publicans who are connected with

with criminal people, and who, to accommodate their companions in iniquity, allow their houses to be rendezvous for thieves, swindlers, and dealers in base money

1,000

13. A class of inferior officers belonging to the customs and excise, including what are called supernumeraries and glutmen, many of whom connive at pillage as well as frauds committed on the revenue, and share in the plunder to a very considerable extent, principally from their inability to support themselves on the pittance allowed them in name of salary, estimated at

1,000

14. A numerous class of persons who keep chandler's shops for the sale of provisions, tea, and other necessities, to the poor.—The total number is estimated at ten thousand in the metropolis, a certain proportion of whom, as well as small butchers and others, are known to cheat their customers (especially those to whom they give a little credit) by false weights, for which, excepting in the parish of Mary-le-bone, there is no proper check,

3,500

15. Servants, male and female, porters, hostlers, stable boys, and post boys, &c. out of place, principally from ill behaviour and loss of character, whose means of living must excite suspicion—at all times about

10,000

16. Persons called black legs, and others profelyted to the passion of gaming, or pursuing it as a trade, who are in the constant habit of frequenting houses opened for the express purpose of play, of which there are at least forty in Westminster, where Pharo Banks are kept, or where Hazard, Rouge a' Noir, &c. are introduced. Of these, five are kept in the houses of ladies of fashion, who are said to receive 50l. each rout, besides one eighth of the profits: seven are subscription houses; five have customers particularly attached to them, and thirteen admit foreigners and every idle and dissolute character, who are either introduced or known to belong to the fraternity of gamblers, where a supper and wines are always provided by the proprietors of the house for the entertainment of their customers,

2,000

17. Spendthrifts—rakes—giddy young men inexperienced and in the pursuit of criminal pleasures—Profligate, loose, and dissolute characters,—vitiating themselves and in the daily practice of seducing others to intemperance, lewdness, debauchery, gambling, and excess, estimated at

3,000

18. Foreigners who live chiefly by gambling	500
19. Bawds who keep houses of ill fame, brothels, and lodging-houses for prostitutes,	2,000
20. Unfortunate females of all descriptions. who support themselves chiefly or wholly by prostitution,	50,000
21. Strangers out of work who have wandered up to London in search of employment, and without recommendation, generally in consequence of some misdemeanor committed in the country. at all times above	1,000
22. Strolling minstrels, ballad singers, show men, trumpeters, and gipsies	1,500
23. Grubbers, gin-drinking dissolute women, and destitute boys and girls, wandering and prowling about in the streets and bye-places after chips, nails, old metals, broken glass, paper, twine, &c. &c. who are constantly on the watch to pilfer when an opportunity offers	2,000
24. Common beggars and vagrants asking alms, supposing one to every two streets	3,000

Total	115,000'
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p. vii.

Particular details, concerning each class of persons in this shocking calculation, are given in the body of the work. The author follows his estimate with many judicious and admirable remarks on our system of criminal jurisprudence, to the incongruous and defective state of which, he attributes most of the depredations and disorders that affect the property and peace of the community. Like the humane and penetrating Beccaria, he is an advocate for the certainty of punishment, rather than the severity of laws, and justly observes, that in the execution of a sanguinary criminal code—

‘ Little penetration is required, to see that it must, in the nature of things, defeat the ends which were meant to be attained, namely, The prevention of crimes.’ P. 5.

and again—

‘ If it were possible to form a scale of offences with a corresponding punishment applicable to each, and ascending from the slight misdemeanor in progressive gradation to the highest crimes of forgery, arson, murder, and treason, the guilty would not so frequently escape the punishments of the law; and the numerous hordes of thieves and fraudulent people who are daily committed for slighter offences, would not, as at present, be returned upon society either by gaol deliveries or by acquittals.’ P. 7.

‘ The

‘ The method of inflicting punishments ought always to be proportioned to the end it is meant to serve. That boundary should never be exceeded, and where death does not attach to the crime, the reformation and future utility of the convict to the state should constantly form a leading feature in our criminal jurisprudence.’

P. 9.

The friend of his species will be gratified in perceiving that the opinions of a gentleman, actually and extensively engaged in the administration of justice, thus coincide with principles, which, however admired by many, have been thought to partake more of philosophic benevolence than of practical eligibility.

The causes of the frequent inefficacy of our present system of municipal regulation, for the purposes of public security, are stated by the writer of this treatise, in the following order—

‘ 1. The imperfections in the criminal code ; and in many instances, its deficiency, with respect to the mode of punishment, as well as to many other regulations, provisions, and restraints, applicable to the present state of society, for the purpose of preventing crimes.

‘ 2. The want of an active principle, calculated to concentrate and connect the whole police of the metropolis and the nation, and reduce the general management to system and method by the interposition of a superintending agency, composed of able, intelligent, and indefatigable men, acting under the direction and control of his majesty’s principal secretary of state for the home department, on whom would devolve the subordinate care and direction of the general police of the metropolis, so as to obtain, by the introduction of order and arrangement, and by efforts of labour and exertion, a complete history of the connections, and pursuits of all or most of the criminal and fraudulent persons who resort to the metropolis, whether natives or foreigners, forming from such materials a general and complete register of every known offender, and thereby establish a clue for their detection, as often as they are charged with committing depredations on the public—with power to reward officers of justice, and all other persons, whose services are found to be useful in the discovery or detection of delinquents of every description.—To keep a register of property stolen, or procured by swindling, or fraudulent transactions in the metropolis, as well as in other parts of Great Britain :—To establish a correspondence with the magistrates in town and country, so as to be able more effectually to watch the motions of criminal offenders, with a view to quick and immediate detection, and to those embarrassments which a vigilant and active police may place in the way of every class of offenders, so as to diminish crimes by increasing the risk of detection : under

circum-

circumstances too, where a centre point would be formed, and all the general affairs of the police conducted with method and regularity :—where magistrates would find assistance and information, and where great lines of police, such as the coinage of base money, the lottery offenders, and the care and disposal of convicts according to their different sentences, would be taken up, and conducted with that intelligence and benefit to the country, arising from the attention of men of business being directed to these objects, distinct from all other affairs of state; and confined principally to the preservation of the morals of the people, and the prevention of crimes.

‘ 3. An extension of the institution of police magistrates to the dock yards, and to other great commercial and manufacturing towns where there are no corporations or funds for the administration of public justice.

‘ 4. The want of a public prosecutor for the crown, in all criminal cases, for the purpose of preventing frauds in the administration of justice.

‘ 5. The want of a more correct and regular system for the purpose of obtaining the fullest and most authentic information, with a view to pardons.

‘ 6. The system of the hulks.

‘ 7. The want of an improved system with regard to the arrangement and disposal of convicts—destined for hard labour or for transportation.

‘ 8. The want of national penitentiary houses for the punishment and reformation of certain classes of convicts.

‘ 9. The want of a more solemn mode of conducting executions, whenever such dreadful examples are necessary for the benefit of public justice.’ p. 29.

These causes are illustrated by the author in a train of as just and ingenious reasoning, as we ever recollect to have seen employed on any topic of jurisprudence; his arguments are supported by the powerful evidence of a collection of facts, which, while they gratify curiosity, and excite astonishment, must alarm the public to a sense of the insecure and dangerous state of society, in which it has supinely continued from day to day. At the end of a more particular statement, the annual amount of the depredations committed on property in and near the metropolis is thus recapitulated—

‘ 1. Small thefts	—	—	—	£. 710,000
2. Thefts upon the rivers and quays	—	—	—	500,000
3. Thefts in the dock-yards, &c. on the Thames	—	—	—	300,000
4. Burglaries, highway-robberies, &c.	—	—	—	220,000

5. Coining base money	—	—	—	200,000
6. Forging bills, swindling, &c.	—	—	—	170,000
Total estimate				£. 2,100,000

P. 47.

The combinations of villany by which this extensive system of pillage is practised, are described by our author in their various forms; his remarks on the purloining of naval stores from his majesty's dock yards, &c. and on the immense quantities of merchandise stolen from ships in the river, by *lumpers* and other persons employed in discharging their cargoes, well merit the serious attention of government, and of the merchants of London; the latter, in particular, are considerably indebted to this publication, as it describes the most effectual means by which their property may be secured from plunder, and places the arguments in favour of the new scheme for wet docks, in a very striking point of view.

The author attributes the great prevalence of these and other species of robbery, to the systematic encouragement given to the various classes of thieves, by receivers of stolen goods, who are described as carrying on a most lucrative and nefarious traffic in property dishonestly acquired, under the ostensible and pretended trades of pawnbrokers, dealers in old iron, rags, &c. &c. To destroy radically this notorious evil, many sagacious regulations are suggested in a subsequent part of the work.—Coining, that peculiarly mischievous mode of depredation on the public, is exposed by our author through all the branches in which it is practised by the perverted ingenuity of a very numerous class of offenders: the following remark and anecdote are selected from a mass of information on the subject, that would astonish our readers—

‘It is impossible to estimate the amount of this base money which has entered into the circulation of the country during the last twenty years: but it must be immense, since one of the principal coiners in the flat way who has lately left off business, and made some important discoveries, acknowledged to a magistrate of police, that he had coined to the extent of two hundred thousand pounds sterling in counterfeit half-crowns, including other base silver money, in a period of seven years, which is the less surprising, as two persons can stamp and finish to the amount of from 200l. to 300l. a week.’ P. 119.

From a description of several classes of cheats, who prey on ignorance and credulity, we extract a curious article—

‘*A class of cheats, or female bankers, who accommodate barrow-*
women,

women, and others, who sell fish, fruit, vegetables, &c. in the streets, with five shillings a day (the usual diurnal stock in trade in such cases) for the use of which, for twelve hours, they obtain a premium of six pence when the money is returned in the evening, receiving thereby at this rate, about seven pounds ten shillings a year for every five shillings they lend out!

‘A police magistrate, on discovering this extraordinary species of fraud, attempted to explain to a barrow-woman on whom it was practised, that by saving up a single five shillings, and not laying any part of it out in gin, but keeping the whole, she would save 7l. 10s. a year, which seemed to astonish her and to stagger her belief;—but it is to be feared had no effect upon her future conduct, since it is evident that this improvident and dissolute class of females have no other idea than that of making the day and the way alike long.—Their profits (which are often considerably augmented by dealing in base money, in addition to fruit, vegetables, &c.) seldom last over the day, for they never fail to have a luxurious dinner, and a hot supper, with abundance of gin and porter:—looking in general no farther than to keep whole the original stock, with the sixpence of interest, which is paid over to the female banker in the evening: and a new loan obtained on the following morning of the same five shillings again to go to market.’ p. 182.

(*To be continued.*)

Studies of Nature. By James-Henry Bernardin De Saint Pierre. Translated by Henry Hunter, D. D. Minister of the Scots Church, London-Wall. 5 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 10s. Boards. Dilly. 1796.

LES *Etudes de la Nature*, by St. Pierre, was first published in 1784. It is a philosophical work with a moral tendency. The design, which is partly similar to that of Derham in his *Physico-theology*, is to display the perfections of the Supreme Being, by investigating the order and harmony of the universe, and to answer the objections of atheists and sceptics. Nothing, however, can be more different than the execution of these two works. The English philosopher is concise, dry, and methodical. The Frenchman is desultory and eccentric to the greatest degree, but displays a fine imagination, the most brilliant colouring, and a warmth of philanthropy and piety, which does the greatest honour to his feelings.

St. Pierre is an admirer and disciple of Rousseau; he has caught no small portion of that author's glowing sensibility and powers of description, he resembles him likewise in the querulous disposition of a disappointed man; but his wounded feelings

feelings only exhale themselves in a sublime and tender melancholy, which breaks forth in many parts of his works, and which inclines him to a love of wild and solitary nature, or to a predilection for that simplicity in the manners of men, which is supposed to be the result of uncultivated life.

As a philosopher, St. Pierre is particularly distinguished by a new theory of the tides, which, according to him, proceed from the alternate fusion of the polar ices by the heat of the sun; to this cause he attributes the currents, which he is sanguine enough to suppose might be reduced to such a system as to make it possible

‘ To maintain a regular mutual correspondence, free of all expense, over all the maritime countries of the globe. It might, perhaps, be possible, by these means, to turn to very good account those vast forests which cover the northern districts of Europe and of America, consisting mostly of fir, and which rot on the face of those deserted lands, without producing any benefit to man. They might be committed, in summer, in well-compacted floats, first to the current of the rivers, and afterward to that of the ocean, which would convey them, at least, to the latitude of our coasts which are stripped of planting, as the course of the Rhine pours every year into Holland, prodigious rafts of oak, felled in the forests of Germany. The wrecks of the naval engagement off Ostend, conveyed with such rapidity as far as the Azores, discover, in some degree, the extent of the resources which nature offers to supply in this way.’ Vol. i. p. lxiv.

‘ A common glass bottle might preserve such a deposit for ages on the surface of the deep, and waft it repeatedly from pole to pole. It is not for the sake of our haughty and unfeeling academicians, who refuse to see any thing in nature, which they have not imagined in their closet, it is not for them that I thus dwell on the detail, and the application of these oceanic harmonies; no, it is for your sake, unfortunate mariners! It is from the mitigation of the woes to which your profession exposes you, that I one day expect my noblest and most durable recompence. One day, perhaps, a wretched individual of your description, shipwrecked on a desert island, may intrust to the currents of the seas, the sad task of announcing to the habitations of men, the news of his disaster, and of imploring assistance. Some Cæyx, perhaps, perishing amidst the tempests of Cape Horn, may charge them to waft his expiring farewell; and the billows of the southern hemisphere shall speed the tender sigh to the shores of Europe, to soothe the anguish of some future Alcione.’ Vol. i. p. lxv.

He is a great enemy to the Newtonian philosophy, and
seems

seems very much disposed to disbelieve even the diurnal motion of the earth. It *may* be true, he says, that the earth moves, and not the sun; but he has never been able to get over the difficulty, that when a heavy body is thrown into the air, it ought, according to the Newtonian system, to fall many miles from the place where it is thrown up. A difficulty this, which every child, after a single lesson in astronomy, is able to resolve.

It is not very easy to analyse a work which has very little of method, and yet embraces a great variety of objects, moral, political, and scientific,—which aims to unite sentiment with philosophy, and the flowers of description with the singularity of novel theories. The work opens in a manner well calculated to impress on the reader's mind that infinite variety of the productions of nature, which mocks all calculation. The author had formed the design, he tells us, of composing a general history of nature, but was deterred from it by the following incident—

‘ One day, in summer, while I was busied in the arrangement of some observations which I had made, respecting the harmonies discoverable in this globe of ours, I perceived, on a strawberry plant, which had been, accidentally, placed in my window, some small winged insects, so very beautiful, that I took a fancy to describe them. Next day, a different sort appeared, which I proceeded, likewise, to describe. In the course of three weeks, no less than thirty-seven species, totally distinct, had visited my strawberry plant: at length, they came in such crowds, and presented such variety, that I was constrained to relinquish this study, though highly amusing, for want of leisure, and, to acknowledge the truth, for want of expression.

‘ The insects, which I had observed, were all distinguishable from each other, by their colours, their forms, and their motions. Some of them shone like gold, others were of the colour of silver, and of brass; some were spotted, some striped; they were blue, green, brown, chestnut coloured. The heads of some were rounded like a turban, those of others were drawn out into the figure of a cone. Here it was dark as a tuft of black velvet, there it sparkled like a ruby.

‘ There was not less diversity in their wings. In some they were long and brilliant, like transparent plates of mother-of-pearl; in others, short and broad, resembling net-work of the finest gauze. Each had his particular manner of disposing and managing his wings. Some disposed theirs perpendicularly; others, horizontally; and they seemed to take pleasure in displaying them. Some flew spirally, after the manner of butterflies; others sprang into the air, directing their flight in opposition to the wind, by a mechanism somewhat

somewhat similar to that of a paper-kite, which, in rising, forms with the axis of the wind, an angle, I think, of twenty-two degrees and a half.

‘ Some alighted on the plant to deposit their eggs ; others, merely to shelter themselves from the sun. But the greatest part paid this visit from reasons totally unknown to me : for some went and came, in an incessant motion, while others moved only the hinder part of their body. A great many of them remained entirely motionless, and were like me, perhaps, employed in making observations.

‘ I scorned to pay any attention, as being already sufficiently known, to all the other tribes of insects, which my strawberry plant had attracted ; such as the snail, which nestles under the leaves ; the butterfly, which flutters around ; the beetle, which digs about it's roots ; the small worm, which contrives to live in the parenchyme, that is, in the mere thickness of a leaf ; the wasp and honey-bee, which hum around the blossoms ; the gnat, which sucks the juices of the stem ; the ant, which licks up the gnat ; and, to make no longer an enumeration, the spider, which, in order to find a prey in these, one after another, distends his snares over the whole vicinity.’ Vol. i. p. 3.

He proceeds to describe, with equal fancy and ingenuity, the different appearances which their habitations must exhibit to these minute animals—

‘ But it was not sufficient to observe it, if I may use the expression, from the heights of my greatness ; for, in this case, my knowledge would have been greatly inferior to that of one of the insects, who made it their habitation. Not one of them, on examining it with his little spherical eyes, but must have distinguished an infinite variety of objects, which I could not perceive without the assistance of a microscope, and after much laborious research. Nay, their eyes are inconceivably superior even to this instrument ; for it shews us the objects only which are in it's focus, that is, at the distance of a few lines ; whereas they perceive, by a mechanism of which we have no conception, those which are near, and those which are far off. Their eyes, therefore, are, at once, microscopes and telescopes.’ Vol. i. p. 6.

‘ It is credible, then, from analogy, that there are animals feeding on the leaves of plants, like the cattle in our meadows, and on our mountains ; which repose under the shade of a down imperceptible to the naked eye, and which, from goblets formed like so many suns, quaff nectar of the colour of gold and silver. Each part of the flower must present, to them, a spectacle of which we can form no idea. The yellow anthers of flowers, suspended by fillets of white, exhibit to their eyes, double rafters of gold in equilibrium,

librio, on pillars fairer than ivory; the corolla, an arch of unbounded magnitude, enbellished with the ruby and the topaz; rivers of nectar and honey; the other parts of the flowret, cups, urns, pavilions, domes, which the human architect and goldsmith have not yet learned to imitate.

‘ I do not speak thus from conjecture: for having examined, one day, by the microscope, the flowers of thyme, I distinguished in them, with equal surprize and delight, superb flagons, with a long neck, of a substance resembling amethyst, from the gullets of which seemed to flow ingots of liquid gold. I have never made observation, of the corolla simply, of the smallest flower, without finding it composed of an admirable substance, half transparent, studded with brilliants, and shining in the most lively colours.

‘ The beings which live under a reflex thus enriched, must have ideas, very different from ours, of light, and of the other phenomena of nature. A drop of dew, filtering in the capillary, and transparent, tubes of a plant, presents, to them, thousands of cascades; the same drop, fixed as a wave on the extremity of one of it's prickles, an ocean without a shore; evaporated into air, a vast aerial sea. They must, therefore, see fluids ascending, instead of falling; assuming a globular form, instead of sinking to a level; and mounting into the air, instead of obeying the power of gravity.’ Vol. i. p. 8.

The ingenious author tells us, that when he had considered all these things, he found himself in the condition of the child, who with a shell had dug a hole in the sand to hold the water of the ocean. Turning therefore from a plan so vast, he professes to confine himself to answering some of the objections to the laws of nature and the wisdom of providence, and giving, in slight sketches, some idea of their tendencies. His aim seems to be chiefly to illustrate what he calls the harmonies of nature; that is, the adaptation of a plant, an animal, to the soil, the climate, and other circumstances with which it is connected. His observations are ingenious, but many of them fanciful; and his solicitude to discover final causes (which, where they can be fairly predicated, throw the strongest interest into philosophical disquisitions) often leads him into the regions of vague conjecture or fanciful analogy. The following lines are a specimen of the picturesque powers of his pencil—

‘ Let these laborious exertions be relaxed ever so little, and all these petty levellings will presently be confounded under the general levelling of continents, and all this culture, the work of man, disappears before that of nature. Our sheets of water degenerate into marshes; our hedge-row elms burst into luxuriancy; every bower is choked, every avenue closes: the vegetables natural to

each soil declare war against the strangers; the starry thistle and vigorous verbascom, stifle under their broad leaves the English short grassy sod; thick crops of rye-grass and trefoil gather round the trees of Palestine; the bramble scrambles along their stem, with it's prickly claws, as if mounting a breach; tufts of nettles take possession of the urn of the Naiads, and forests of reeds, of the forges of Vulcan; greenish scales of minium corrode the faces of our Venuses, without paying any respect to their beauty. The trees themselves lay siege to the castle; the wild cherry, the elm, the maple, mount upon it's ridges, plunge their long pivots into it's lofty pediments, and, at length, obtain the victory over it's haughty cupolas. The ruins of a park no less merit the reflections of the sage, than those of an empire: they equally demonstrate how inefficient the power of man is, when struggling against that of nature.' Vol. i. p. 279.

Great part of the first volume is taken up with his new theory of the tides *, in which, though he has shown some ingenuity in adapting to it the course of the currents, and other circumstances, most of our philosophic readers will probably think there is more of novelty than of solidity. He supposes too, contrary to known experiment, that the earth is elongated at the poles. This he supposes to be occasioned by the immense cupola of ice, which he conceives to cover those regions. Indeed he seems inclined to refer to this favourite hypothesis all the phænomena which require explanation, even the difference of the seasons—

‘ I deduce another consequence from this configuration. If the elevation of the polar ices is capable of changing in the heavens the apparent form of the globe, their weight must be sufficiently considerable to produce some influence on it's motion in the ecliptic. There is, in fact, a very singular correspondence between the movement, by which the earth alternately presents it's two poles to the sun, in one year, and the alternate effusions of the polar ices, which take place in the course of the same year. Let me explain my conception of the way in which this motion of the earth is the effect of these effusions.

‘ Admitting, with astronomers, the laws of attraction among the heavenly bodies, the earth must certainly present to the sun, which attracts it, the weightiest part of it's globe. Now, this weightiest part must be one of it's poles, when it is surcharged with a cupola of ice, of an extent of two thousand leagues, and of an elevation superior to that of the continents. But as the ice of this pole, which it's gravity inclines toward the sun, melts in proportion to it's vertical approximation to the source of heat, and as, on the contrary, the ice, of the opposite pole, increases in proportion to it's

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. xiv. p. 293.

removal, the necessary consequence must be, that the first pole becoming lighter, and the second heavier, the centre of gravity passes alternately from the one to the other, and from this reciprocal preponderancy must ensue that motion of the globe in the ecliptic, which produces our summer and winter.

From this alternate preponderancy, it must likewise happen, that our hemisphere, containing more land than the southern hemisphere, and being, consequently, heavier, it must incline toward the sun for a greater length of time; and this, too, corresponds to the matter of fact, for our summer is five or six days longer than our winter. A further consequence is, that our pole cannot lose its centre of gravity, till the opposite pole becomes loaded with a weight of ice superior to the gravity of our continent, and of the ices of our hemisphere; and this, likewise, is agreeable to fact, for the ices of the south pole are more elevated, and more extensive than those of the northern; for mariners have not been able to penetrate farther than to the 70th degree of south latitude, whereas they have advanced no less than 82° north.

Here we have a glimpse of the reasons by which nature was determined to divide this globe into two hemispheres, of which the one should contain the greatest quantity of dry land, and the other the greatest quantity of water; to the end that this movement of the globe should possess, at once, consistency and versatility. It is farther evident, why the south pole is placed immediately in the midst of the seas, far from the vicinity of any land; that it might be able to load itself with a greater mass of marine evaporations, and that these evaporations accumulated into ice around it, might balance the weight of the continents with which our hemisphere is surcharged.

And here I lay my account with being opposed by a very formidable objection. It is this. If the polar effusions occasion the earth's motion in the ecliptic, the moment would come in which, its two poles being in equilibrio, it could present to the sun the equator only.

I acknowledge that I have no reply to make to that difficulty, unless this be one; we must have recourse to an immediate will of the Author of Nature, who is pleased to destroy the instant of this equilibrium, and who re-establishes the balancing of the earth on its poles, by laws with which we are unacquainted. Now, this concession no more weakens the probability of the hydraulic cause; which I apply to it, than that of the principle of the attraction of the heavenly bodies, which attempts to explain it, I am bold to say, with much less clearness. This very attraction would soon deprive the earth of all manner of motion, if it alone acted in the stars. If we would be sincere, it is in the acknowledgment of an intelligence, superior to our own, that all the mechanical causes, of our most ingenious systems, must issue. The will of GOD is the ultimatum of all human knowledge.' Vol. i. p. 203.

Can any thing be more unphilosophical than to invent a system which requires a perpetual miracle? His description of the deluge is very florid and full of imagination, if not of philosophy—

‘ My supposition then is, that, at the epocha of this tremendous catastrophe, the sun, deviating from the ecliptic, advanced from south to north, and pursued the direction of one of the meridians which passes through the middle of the Atlantic Ocean and of the South-Sea. In this course he heated only a zone of water, frozen as well as fluid, which, through the greatest part of the circumference has a breadth of four thousand five hundred leagues. He extracted long belts of land and sea fog, which accompany the melting of all ices, of the chain of the Cordeliers, of the different branches of the icy mountains of Mexico, of Taurus, and of Imäus, which like them run south and north; of the sides of Atlas, of the summits of Teneriff, of Mount Jura, of Libanus, of Lebanon, and of all the mountains covered with snow, which lay exposed to his direct influence.

‘ He quickly set on fire, with his vertical flame, the constellation of the bear, and that of the cross of the south; and, presently, the vast cupolas of ice, on both poles, melted on every side. All these vapours, united to those which arose out of the ocean, covered the earth with an universal rain. The action of the sun’s heat was farther augmented by that of the burning winds of the sandy zones of Africa and Asia, which blowing, as all winds do, toward the parts of the earth where the air is most rarefied, precipitated themselves, like battering rains of fire, toward the poles of the world, where the sun was then acting with all his energy.

‘ Innumerable torrents immediately burst from the north pole, which was then the most loaded with ice, as the deluge commenced on the 17th of February, that season of the year, when winter has exerted it’s full power over our hemisphere. These torrents issued all at once from every flood-gate of the north; from the straits of the sea of Anadir, from the deep gulf of Kamtschatka, from the Baltic sea, from the strait of Waigats, from the unknown fluents of Spitzbergen and Greenland, from Hudson’s Bay, and from that of Baffin, which is still more remote. Their roaring currents rushed furiously down, partly through the channel of the Atlantic Ocean, hurled it up from the abysses of it’s profound basin, drove impetuously beyond the line, and their collateral counter-tides forced back upon them, and increased by the currents from the south pole, which had been set a flowing at the same time, poured upon our coasts the most formidable of tides. They rolled along, in their surges, a part of the spoils of the ocean, situated between the ancient and the new continent. They spread the vast beds of shells which pave the bottom of the seas at the Antilles and Cape-

Verd Islands, over the plains of Normandy ; and carried even those which adhere to the rocks of Magellan's Strait, as far as to the plains which are watered by the Saône. Encountered by the general current of the pole, they formed at their confluences horrible counter-tides, which conglomerated, in their vast funnels, sands, flints, and marine bodies, into masses of indigested granite, into irregular hills, into pyramidical rocks, whose protuberances variegated the soil in many places of France and Germany. These two general currents of the poles happening to meet between the tropics, tore up, from the bed of the seas, huge banks of madrépores, and tossed them, unseparated, on the shores of the adjacent islands, where they subsist to this day.

‘ In other places, their waters, slackened at the extremity of their course, spread themselves over the surface of the ground in vast sheets, and deposited, by repeated undulations, in horizontal layers, the wreck and the viscidities of an infinite number of fishes, sea-urchins, sea-weeds, shells, corals, and formed them into strata of gravel, pastes of marble, of marle, of plaster and calcareous stones, which constitute, to this day, the soil of a considerable part of Europe. Every layer of our fossils was the effect of an universal tide. While the effusions of the polar ices were covering the westerly extremities of our continent with the spoils of the ocean, they were spreading over it's easterly extremities those of the land, and deposited on the soil of China, strata of vegetable earth, from three to four hundred feet deep.

‘ Then it was that all the plans of nature were reversed. Complete islands of floating ice, loaded with white bears, run aground among the palm-trees of the torrid zone, and the elephants of Africa were tossed amidst the fir-groves of Siberia, where their large bones are still found to this day. The vast plains of the land, inundated by the waters, no longer presented a career to the nimble courser, and those of the sea, roused into fury, ceased to be navigable. In vain did man think of flying for safety to the lofty mountains. Thousands of torrents rushed down their sides, and mingled the confused noise of their waters with the howling of the winds, and the roaring of the thunder. Black tempests gathered round their summits, and diffused a night of horror in the very midst of day. In vain did he turn an eager eye toward that quarter of the heavens where Aurora was to have appeared : he perceives nothing in the whole circuit of the horizon but piles of dark clouds heaped upon each other ; a pale glare here and there furrows their gloomy and endless battalions ; and the orb of day, veiled by their lurid coruscations, emits scarcely light sufficient to afford a glimpse, in the firmament, of his bloody disk, wading through new constellations.’ Vol. i. p. 210.

M. de St. Pierre professes himself much dissatisfied with the usual

usual classification of plants and animals ; and wishes to recommend one more according to nature, that is, by which the habits of a plant, the animals that feed on it, the soil where it grows, &c. might all be known together. He insists much on the resemblances and contrasts observable in nature, in describing many of which he is beautifully descriptive, and in others extravagantly fanciful.

The second volume contains replies to the objections against providence, founded on the calamities of the human race,—replies to the objections to a future state,—objections against the methods of our reasoning and principles of our sciences,—of some general laws of nature,—of harmony,—consonances,—contrasts, &c. In all these observations he shows piety and a benevolent heart; but it would be very difficult to extract from his observations any regular and rational system. He every where shows, however, that he has observed nature, and been struck with her beauties.

The third volume goes on with what he calls the harmonies of nature,—those of the human figure,—of plants,—of plants with man,—of animals with man. His design is good : but from indulging fancy more than judgment, he is often really judicious ; as for example—

‘ There is no less marvellousness of adaptation in the forms and sizes of fruits. Many of them are moulded for the mouth of man, such as cherries and plumbs ; others for his hand, such as pears and apples ; others much larger, such as melons, have the sub-divisions marked, and seem destined to be a social family repast : nay, there are some in India, as the jacq, and with ourselves the pompion, large enough to be divided among a neighbourhood. Nature appears to have observed the same proportions in the various sizes of the fruits destined to the nutriment of man, as in the magnitude of the leaves which are designed to afford him a shade in hot countries ; for of these some are contrived to be a shelter for a single person, others for a whole family, and others for all the inhabitants of the same hamlet.’ Vol. iii. P. 311.

The fourth volume treats of the affections and sentiments of the mind, and the application of the laws of nature to the disorders of society,—of Paris,—of education,—national schools, &c. In all his political sentiments, he shows a strong predilection in favour of the people, particularly the agricultural class of them, and imitates Rousseau in his declamations against the manners and modes of instruction of civilised life. The two projects on which he dwells the most are,—first, an elysium, in which monuments of the public gratitude should be erected to the memory of the benefactors of mankind, accompanied with proper emblems—

‘I would begin, then, with erecting the first monuments of the public gratitude to those who have introduced among us the useful plants: for this purpose, I would select one of the islands of the Seine, in the vicinity of Paris, to be converted into an elysium. I would take, for example, that one which is below the majestic bridge of Neuilly, and which, in a few years more, will actually be joined to the suburbs of Paris. I would extend my field of operation, by taking in that branch of the Seine which is not adapted to the purposes of navigation, and a large portion of the adjoining continent. I would plant this extensive district with the trees, the shrubbery, and the herbage, with which France has been enriched for several ages past. There should be assembled the great Indian chestnut, the tulip-tree, the mulberry, the acacia of America and Asia; the pines of Virginia and Siberia; the bear’s-ear of the Alps; the tulips of Calcedonia, and so on. The service-tree of Canada, with it’s scarlet clusters; the magnolia grandiflora of America, which produces the largest and most odoriferous of flowers: the ever-green thuia of China, which puts forth no apparent flower, should interlace their boughs, and form, here and there, enchanted groves.

‘Under their shade, and amidst carpets of variegated verdure, should be reared the monuments of those who transplanted them into France. We should behold, around the magnificent tomb of Nicot, ambassador from France to the court of Portugal, which is at present in the church of St. Paul, the famous tobacco-plant spring up, called at first, after his name, Nicotiana, because he was the man who first diffused the knowledge of it over Europe. There is not a European prince but what owes him a statue for that service, for there is not a vegetable in the world which has poured such sums into their treasuries, and so many agreeable illusions into the minds of their subjects. The nepenthes of Homer is not once to be compared to it. There might be engraved on a tablet of marble, adjoining to it, the name of the Flemish Auger de Busbequius, ambassador from Ferdinand the First, king of the Romans, to the Porte, in other respects so estimable, from the charms of his epistolary correspondence; and this small monument might be placed under the shade of the lilach, which he transported from Constantinople, and of which he made a present to Europe, in 1562. The lucern of Media should there surround, with it’s shoots, the monument dedicated to the memory of the unknown husbandman, who first sowed it on our flinty hillocks, and who presented us with an article of pasture, in parched situations, which renovates itself at least four times a year. At sight of the solanum of America, which produces at it’s root the potatoe, the poorer part of the community would bless the name of the man who secured to them a species of aliment, which is not liable, like corn, to suffer by the inconstancy of the elements, and by the granaries

of monopolizers. There too should be displayed, not without a lively interest, the urn of the unknown traveller who adorned, to endless generations, the humble window of his obscure habitation, with the brilliant colours of Aurora, by transplanting thither the sun of Peru.' Vol. iv. p. 260.

The second is national schools; in which, after many just strictures, he falls into the common fault of projectors of this kind, who pretend to bring up children without constraint or confinement, and yet suppose they can accomplish them in those sciences which, without time and application, cannot be learned. In the conclusion of the volume, which is addressed to the late king of France, the following sentence shows the Frenchman—

' Ah! if it be possible for one single man to constitute, on this earth, the hope of the human race, that man is a king of France. He reigns over his people by love, his people over the rest of Europe by manners, Europe over the rest of the globe by power.' Vol. iv. p. 402.

The last volume contains the well-known and most beautiful tale of Paul and Virginia, equally admirable for description, pathos, and simplicity. Here the author's talents are displayed to the greatest advantage: but as we shall have to speak of this piece more at large in a succeeding article, we shall say no more of it at present. There is, likewise, a fragment entitled *Arcadia*, which is not of equal merit; the subject is the manners of the ancient Gauls, and their supposed civilisation by an Egyptian, who gives the relation of his travels to an Arcadian shepherd. This fragment is preceded by a sort of memoir of the author, in which, whatever there is of querulousness, may easily be pardoned, when we read the following affecting account of what was for some time his situation:

' While all this was going on, my calamities had not yet attained their final period. The ingratitude of men, of whom I had deserved better things; unexpected family mortifications; the total annihilation of my slender patrimony, scattered abroad to the four winds of heaven, in enterprises undertaken for the service of my country; the debts under which I lay oppressed, by engagements of this kind; all my hopes of fortune blasted . . . these combined calamities, made dreadful inroads at once upon my health and my reason. I was attacked by a malady to which I had hitherto been a stranger. Fires, similar to those of lightning, affected the organs of vision. Every object presented itself to me double, and in motion. Like *Œdipus*, I saw two suns. My heart was not less disturbed than my head. In the finest day of summer, I could not cross the *Seine*, in a boat, without undergoing anxieties

unutterable; even I, who had preserved my soul in tranquillity, amidst a tempest off the Cape of Good-Hope, on board a vessel struck with lightning. If I happened to pass simply through a public garden, by the side of a basin full of water, I underwent spasmodic affections of extreme horror. There were particular moments, in which I imagined myself bitten, without knowing how, or when, by a mad dog. Much worse than this had actually befallen me; I had been bitten by the tooth of calumny.

‘One thing is absolutely certain, the paroxysms of this malady overtook me only when in the society of men. I found it intolerable to continue in an apartment where there was company, especially if the doors were shut. I could not even cross an alley in a public garden, if several persons had got together in it. I derived no relief from the circumstance of their being unknown to me: I recollected, that I had been calumniated by my own friends, and for the most honourable actions of my life. When I was alone, my malady subsided: I felt myself likewise at my ease in places where I saw children only. I frequently went, for this purpose, and seated myself by the box of the horse-shoe, in the Tuileries, to look at the children playing on the grassy parterre, with the little dogs which frisked about them. These were my spectacles, and my tournaments. Their innocence reconciled me to the human species, much better than all the wit of our dramas, and than all the sentences of our philosophers. But at sight of any one walking up to the place where I was, I felt my own frame agitated, and retired. I often said to myself: my sole study has been to merit well of mankind; wherefore, then, am I shocked, as often as I see them? To no purpose did I call in reason to my aid: my reason could do nothing against a malady which was enfeebling all its powers. The very efforts which reason made to surmount it, served only to exhaust her still more, because she employed them against herself. Reason called, not for vigorous exertion, but for repose.’
Vol. v. p. 203.

This *humourous melancholy* seems to have been no tentirely like that of *Jacques*, in *As You like it*,—a melancholy of his own; for he seems to have fashioned it in a good measure by that of his friend *Rousseau*, whose conversations he often quotes. *M. de St. Pierre* after this enjoyed a pension from the unfortunate *Louis XVI.*

It remains now only to speak of the translation of these volumes. It is such as may be read with pleasure; but though not deficient in elegance, it is not quite free from inaccuracies, some of which we shall take the liberty to point out. *Oiseau-mouche* (the humming-bird) is translated *bird-fly*; *puceron* (vine-freter) is translated *gnat*, which is *cousin*; *cornet*, a sort of hood, is left untranslated, a *nun's cornet*. In the pas-

sage we have quoted, page 9, vol. i. instead of *rivers of nectar and honey*, the French has it *the nectarium exhibits* (understood) *rivers of sugar*, *les nectaires des fleuves de sucre*; convolvulus and lady-smock, two very different flowers, are made synonymous, and they are said to be 'hollowed into the shape of a spire;' the French is *evidées en cloches blanches comme la neige*, that is to say, *bell-flowers*, not *spires*; *quand les passions commencent à prendre l'essor*, is ill translated by *when the passions begin to take flight*, which conveys a meaning quite contrary. 'Had not the hope of a life to come been the result d'un sentiment naturel, translated, *of a supernatural feeling*.'

We are well aware that in the drudgery of a long translation, a few slips are easily made; but if made, they require correction, which we hope our ingenious author will speedily be enabled to do in a new edition.

The Thymbriad, (from Xenophon's Cyropædia.) By Lady Burrell. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Leigh and Sotheby.

TO this production, the following Preface is prefixed—

'The authoress of this poem, cannot suffer it to appear before the public, without an apology for the many inaccuracies which may be found in a work of this sort, written with a feeble pen, without the advantages of military science, or classical learning. It was the amusement of her leisure hours several years ago, (although she has since revised, and made some additions to the poem.) She hopes the eye of criticism will be indulgent to its faults, and that those of her friends, who may happen to peruse it, will, if there are any merits, see them through the magnifying glass of partiality.'

P. iii.

We are sorry that we cannot commend this volume equally with her ladyship's former publications. The subject itself is but little favourable to poetry; and lady Burrell's blank verse is less happy than her rhyme. That our readers, however, may judge for themselves, we present them with the following extract—

'She ending wept, as tho' her heart presag'd
The sad catastrophe of Susa's lord;
Yet was Panthea fix'd in her design,
Sick of suspense, impatient of delay.
Disguis'd in servile garments, o'er their heads
Their veils they cast, and undiscover'd stray'd
Along the fatal field. The silver moon

Expos'd

Expos'd the various horrors of the scene,
 And soon Panthea mark'd the regal car,
 Whereon her Abradates she beheld
 That very morn, in all the brilliant pride
 Of youth, of grace, and conscious dignity.—
 (This was a sight, to make her blood run cold,
 And ev'ry limb relaxing from its strength,
 Refuse assistance to her trembling frame.)
 The vital heat fled from her timid breast,
 And terror with an hasty hand despoil'd
 Her cheeks of all their bloom; she strove to speak,
 But found no language equal to express
 The feelings of her heart. Awhile she stood
 As mute and motionless as the fair form
 Of Mediccan Venus, while her slave
 Participates her fears, and begs in vain
 To guide her to Cardouchus' care, forbodes
 A thousand evils, and implores the gods
 To shield Panthea's bosom from despair.
 Her pray'rs are fruitless, to the winds alone
 Her words are giv'n—they pierce the ambient air,
 But do not reach the ear of Sufa's queen.
 Deaf to her voice, she only casts aside
 Lethargic horror, to experience pangs
 Of most acute distress, and frantic fear;
 Wild with her terror, o'er the plain she flies
 And calls for Abradates; none appear
 To answer her enquiry—with her shrieks
 She wakes the distant echo, which repeats
 His name belov'd—thro' all the dreadful scene
 She passes—walks among her murder'd friends,
 And those who were her foes; with dread surveys
 The faces of the dead, and fears to meet
 That which she knew, and lov'd so well—at last
 She finds the object of her search. But how?
 How does she find him? cover'd o'er with wounds;
 His manly limbs hew'd by the cruel scythe,
 His face disfigur'd with a mask of blood,
 But still superior to disguise. His sword,
 His vest, his scarf, his armour, leave no doubt
 For the expiring hopes of Sufa's queen.
 In silent horror she suspends the force
 Of frantic fury. Certainty appears
 In dreadful garb array'd, and anguish, keen
 And terrible, usurp'd that tender heart,
 Ordain'd this worst of trials to endure.
 She read her fortune in her hero's wounds—

A little pause ensued, a little space
 For nature to respire, her very soul
 Appears collected in her speaking eyes,
 And riveted upon the mangled form,
 Of him so late the noblest of his kind.
 At length a sudden shower of tears descend,
 To wash the blood from his ensanguin'd face;
 Her voice regains its function, weeping still,
 She thus addresses the disfigur'd corse:
 " O Abradates ! are we thus to meet ?
 Why did not everlasting night enshroud
 Thy wretched wife from this heart-piercing sight !
 This tragic truth which harrows up my soul !
 In this sad hour, my sanguine hopes descend
 From the fair prospect of an happy life,
 To thy untimely grave, the only place
 Where my afflicted heart can find repose.
 Oh best belov'd ! it is my cruel fate
 To live and see this change—no more thine eyes
 Which once diffus'd such cheerfulness and love,
 Behold the tears that flow so fast from mine.
 No more those lips (which could so well persuade,)
 Express the dictates of thy virtuous soul.
 Alas, my hero ! thou art chang'd indeed,
 Yet I, remain the same !"—she said, and sunk
 In anguish by his side.' P. 145.

An Account of several new and interesting Phenomena, discovered in examining the Bodies of a Man and Four Horses, killed by Lightning, near Dover, in Kent. With Remarks on the Insufficiency of the popular Theory of Electricity to explain them. By the Reverend John Lyon, Minister of St. Mary's, Dover. 8vo. 1s. Phillips. 1796.

MR. Lyon, after asserting that system and fact are totally at variance on the subject of electricity, and giving a seasonable hint to those who preside in the courts of criticism, steps forward to vindicate an opinion, formerly maintained *, 'that zig-zag lightning is formed by two currents of the electric effluvia, moving in contrary directions,' and that, 'when-ever they are driven within the sphere of each other's influence, they converge to a point, and form a body of fire, which

* Lyon's Experiments and Observations on Electricity, 1780. And farther proofs of their polar virtue, &c. 1786.

converges again to the nearest object, which is the last conductor to the earth.'

Upon this curious doctrine, the author attempts to explain the different phenomena which presented themselves during the fatal thunder-storm here described. That he has succeeded, few, we are inclined to believe, will be convinced by the arguments or observations contained in the present pamphlet.

In detailing the circumstances of this very severe storm, the author is properly minute; and his descriptions of the situation of the person who was killed, and of the horses, are sufficiently full and exact. The most popular and most prevailing opinion, concerning the unusual fatality of the lightning in this instance, was, that it had been attracted by a bush near the place where the accident happened, and by the iron traces of the horses; and 'that on passing through the man and the horses to the earth, it had produced the fatal effect on each of them.'

This common opinion was not, however, satisfactory to the author. His reasons for not assenting to it are these—

'As there was not a twig, nor even a leaf, of the bush injured, the lightning certainly did not converge to it; for its quantity and velocity were sufficient to have splintered the bush in a thousand pieces. The point to which it converged was on some part of the head of the fore-horse, and there it first divided. One portion of the current passed from the horse's head, by the communication of the wet reins through the man to the earth, and killed him on the spot as he was sitting. The other, and which was by far the greater portion of the lightning, was conducted through the horses as far as the heart of the fourth horse, and there the stream divided again. A large part of it was led to the earth by the off fore-leg of the shaft-horse, and it penetrated into the ground more than three feet, in a perpendicular direction; and the hole which it made in the earth, was about an inch in diameter at the surface.

'Though there had been for some time a very heavy rain, the earth was so hot round the hole which had been formed by the lightning, that it took off the varnish from a supple-jack put into it two hours after the storm had subsided; and if it had been left there any considerable time, it would have been wholly consumed, for it was drawn up without the ferrule, and the heat was so intense as to have slightly burnt it in two or three places. But besides this stream of lightning, which had passed down the fore-leg of the shaft-horse, there was another considerable portion of it which converged from the hinder part of him to a nail, or some sharp point, in the head of the cart, and splintered off a piece of it. At this point it divided again into two portions, apparently equal, and converged to the iron on the axle on each side of the cart, and from thence down each wheel to the earth; and there was fire sufficient to make a considerable hole under each wheel, on its entering the ground.' P. 14.

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The objections contained in the first part of this passage, seem to be deserving of attention ; but the assertion respecting the heat that remained at the hole formed by the lightning, is probably neither correct nor to be depended upon. The effect which is here said to have taken place, must have been most probably produced by some other circumstance than that of the electricity passing into the earth. Electricity is known to produce very little heat, except in cases where it passes through very small or very thin conductors. It has not even been found to afford any perceptible degree of heat to bodies, though applied to them for a considerable length of time. It is, therefore, not very easy to determine in what manner the lightning could produce in the earth such a heat as was capable of burning the end of a supple-jack, two hours after it had been in contact with the ground.

Mr. Lyon has, however, recorded this circumstance, though evidently not with that care and attention which a matter of such curiosity demanded.

The examination of the bodies of the horses after death, also affords a portion of curious matter. Mr. Lyon is, however, no very deep physiologist. He concludes, that because the medullary substance, in cases where death takes place from lightning, is not *visibly* injured, the electric fluid cannot have produced its fatal effect by acting on the nervous system.

Many substances surely destroy life by operating on the nervous system without their having produced any *visible* derangement in the matter which constitutes that system. Is not this evidently the case with many vegetable substances which have been denominated poisons ?

Not satisfied, however, with the common opinion of the nerves being the conductors of electricity, the author has recourse to the arteries, which he asserts to be the real conductors of the electrical fluid. In proof of this, he has *discovered* that the hearts of three, out of the four horses that were unfortunately killed, 'were ruptured quite across the right ventricle, in an oblique direction ;' and that in the fourth, the right carotid artery was ruptured. Of the state of the heart in the man, we have no information. Three cases were, however, thought sufficient ; and on them Mr. Lyon has boldly erected his hypothesis. A less experienced inquirer would, probably, have waited for a few additional facts ; our author, however, seems to have been determined to run no risque of disappointment.

We come next to what Mr. Lyon terms the electricians of 'the old school.' The doctrines of these gentlemen do not, in his opinion, afford a sufficient explanation of the different effects of electricity. We must, however, confess, that,
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in the reasonings that are here opposed to them, we have not been able to discover any thing more satisfactory or forcible. Mr. Lyon is, however, the inventor of a *new* theory: we must therefore expect to have it brought forward on the present occasion; and we surely can have no objection to present the reader with a sample of a *new system*, which is to 'agree better with what we see and hear, not only in those awful operations which frequently excite our fears, but in our harmless experimental amusements, where the effects produced, though in miniature, are very similar.'

'That I may not be accused of endeavouring to raise a structure without a foundation, it may be necessary to remark, that the clouds before described were all of them surcharged with lightning; and the best proof I can give of it is, that frequent and strong flashes were visible in different parts of each of them before their union.

'But the clouds being very low, and the horses elevated more than three hundred feet above the level of the water, and on a very narrow and exposed part of the ridge of the hill, they were not only within the influence of the south-east clouds which were floating over them, but they were highly electrified by them; and the electric effluvia had been converging to some part of the head of the fore horse in a stream, and the arteries were the conductors of the fluid before they were killed. It was this current of the electric fluid which had stimulated the distinguishing organs, both of the males and the female, in the manner before adverted to, and prior to their death. But when the clouds approached each other within striking distance, a large quantity of the electric effluvia converged from each of them, and meeting in a point, formed the body of zig-zag lightning, which was directed to the head of the fore-horse, and killed them all.

'I have already said, upon another occasion, that the electric, like the magnetic effluvia, have an attractive as well as a repulsive property, but not a directive one, like the mariner's needle to point to the north-pole of the world; but when two clouds, loaded with the electric effluvia, are with their particles in a direction to attract each other, they then converge to a point and fly together with an inconceivable velocity; and if the body of fire formed by this union be more than the atmosphere can readily absorb, it will then tend towards the earth, and if it can converge to any high object, it will inevitably strike it. All explosions or shocks with charged glass are upon this principle, and time will prove, when the prejudices of system give way to the evidences of sense, that the Franklinian theory hath always contradicted the most common appearances of nature in a thunder storm.' P. 27.

But this is not all:—our author has made another discovery, which is, that, besides the arteries being the conductors of the
shock,

shock, 'the circulating fluid is affected by it, either by some chemical union which takes place between the blood and the lightning, or by destroying the texture of it.'

However, though we think Mr. Lyon too hasty in drawing his conclusions,—and the facts upon which he has grounded them, much too few,—his tract certainly affords a portion of curious and interesting matter, which cannot fail to attract the attention of electricians.

Paul and Virginia. Translated from the French of Bernardin Saint-Pierre. By Helen Maria Williams, Author of Letters on the French Revolution, Julia a Novel, Poems, &c. 12mo. 3s. Sewed. Verner and Hood. 1796.

IT is not surprising that a tale so beautiful as the *Paul and Virginia* of Bernardin Saint Pierre should have had numerous translators. Fortunate is the author who meets with one so eminently qualified (as, from the specimen before us, we cannot hesitate to pronounce Miss Williams), not only to transfuse every beauty of the original, but to embellish it with new and peculiar graces. The account given us, in the Preface, of the circumstances under which the translation was made, is too interesting to pass unnoticed.

'The following translation of *Paul and Virginia* was written at Paris, amidst the horrors of Robespierre's tyranny. During that gloomy epocha it was difficult to find occupations which might cheat the days of calamity of their weary length. Society had vanished, and, amidst the minute vexations of Jacobinical despotism, which, while it murdered in *mass*, persecuted in detail, the resources of writing, and even reading, were encompassed with danger. The researches of domiciliary visits had already compelled me to commit to the flames a manuscript volume, where I had traced the political scenes of which I had been a witness, with the colouring of their first impressions on my mind, with those fresh tints that fade from recollection: and since my pen, accustomed to follow the impulse of my feelings, could only have drawn at that fatal period those images of desolation and despair which haunted my imagination, and dwelt upon my heart; writing was forbidden employment: even reading had its perils; for books had sometimes aristocratical insinuations, and sometimes counter-revolutionary allusions: and when the administrators of police happened to think the writer a conspirator, they punished the reader as his accomplice.

'In this situation I gave myself the task of employing a few hours every day in translating the charming little novel of Bernardin St. Pierre, entitled "*Paul and Virginia*;" and I found the most soothing relief in wandering from my own gloomy reflections to those

those enchanting scenes of the Mauritius, which he has so admirably described. I also composed a few sonnets adapted to the peculiar productions of that part of the globe, which are interspersed in the work.' p. iii.

Of these sonnets, we shall present our readers with two specimens, both written in the same spirit of plaintive elegance that characterises the poetry of Miss Williams.

‘ SONNET TO DISAPPOINTMENT.

Pale Disappointment ! at thy freezing name
 Chill fears in ev'ry shiv'ring vein I prove,
 My sinking pulse almost forgets to move,
 And life almost forsakes my languid frame——
 Yet thee, relentless nymph ! no more I blame——
 Why do my thoughts midst vain illusions rove ?
 Why gild the charms of friendship and of love
 With the warm glow of fancy's purple flame ?
 When ruffling winds have some bright fane o'erthrown,
 Which shone on painted clouds, or seem'd to shine,
 Shall the fond gazer dream for him alone
 Those clouds were stable, and at fate repine ?—
 I feel, alas ! the fault is all my own,
 And, ah ! the cruel punishment is mine !' p. 31.

‘ SONNET TO THE TORRID ZONE.

Pathway of light ! o'er thy empurpled zone,
 With lavish charms perennial summer strays ;
 Soft 'midst thy spicy groves the zephyr plays,
 While far around the rich perfumes are thrown ;
 The amadavid-bird for thee alone,
 Spreads his gay plumes that catch thy vivid rays ;
 For thee the gems with liquid lustre blaze,
 And nature's various wealth is all thy own.
 But, ah ! not thine is twilight's doubtful gloom,
 Those mild gradations, mingling day with night ;
 Here, instant darkness shrouds thy genial bloom,
 Nor leaves my pensive soul that ling'ring light,
 When musing mem'ry would each trace resume
 Of fading pleasures in successive flight.' p. 74.

The Case of Labourers in Husbandry stated and considered, in three Parts. Part I. A View of their distressed Condition. Part II. The principal Causes of their growing Distress and Number, and of the consequent Increase of the Poor-rate. Part III. Means of Relief proposed. With an Appendix, containing a Collection of Accounts, shewing the Earnings and Expenses of Labouring Families, in different Parts of the Kingdom. By David Davies, Rector of Barkham, Berks. 4to. 10s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1795.

THE increasing attention paid by writers to the lower classes of the people, cannot fail of producing, at a future time, its due effects. Men will learn at last to esteem each other as brethren, and to see the folly of raising one class and depressing another, when all should be considered as having a claim on the protection of their fellow countrymen. Perhaps nothing is more calculated to strike the heart of a benevolent man, than to take a walk through several districts of this great city: let him, for example, admire the elegance of the new square in Moorfields, and thence weep over the wretched abodes of his miserable countrymen within a mile of the place: let him examine the causes which occasion the difference between Finsbury-square, and the collection of hovels in the form of squares to the east of Bishopsgate-street: let him ask whether there must not be a degree of apathy unworthy of a civilised country, which can rest contented in rich and elegant mansions, when so many of their fellow countrymen are exposed to all the evil consequences of bad air, bad lodgings, and every species of filth: and let him then tell the rich merchants of London no longer to make a parade of their charity, when each man has an opportunity of convincing himself, that a small quantity of their earnings, properly managed, would remove entirely the various nuisances in that part of the town, which are not permitted to infest the mansions of opulence.

The same inattention to the comfort and cleanliness of the lower classes is to be observed in other parts of England besides London. The poor cannot prevent the nuisances around them: they have enough to do to provide for themselves food and cloathing: and any one who reads the statements in this work, will not be surprised that these things must be procured with great difficulty. Our author places such strong facts before our eyes, as cannot, we think, fail of making an impression: he vindicates the poor from the charges frequently brought against them: he shows the manifold disadvantages under which they labour.—It is curious at times to hear the

observations of the rich on the luxuries (as they are insolently termed) of the poor. When, to a plentiful repast of every thing which sea and land can procure, succeed the best tea and sugar, for which the east and west have been ransacked, the poor are blamed for their bad tea and coarse sugar. Let us hear our author upon this subject—

‘ Under these hard circumstances, the dearth of malt, and the difficulty of procuring milk, the only thing remaining for them to moisten their bread with, was tea. This was their last resource. Tea (with bread) furnishes one meal for a whole family every day, at no greater expence than about one shilling a week at an average. If any body will point out an article that is cheaper and better, I will venture to answer for the poor in general, that they will be thankful for the discovery.

‘ It was asserted in a work of reputation, many years ago, that as much superfluous money was then expended upon tea, sugar, &c. as would, upon a moderate calculation, maintain four millions more of subjects in bread, (Harte’s Essays, p. 136.) It is not sufficiently clear upon what grounds this calculation was made; but it seems to have been made upon pretty good grounds. Certain it is that the consumption of these articles has increased prodigiously since that time. In the higher and middling ranks it is very great; and in manufacturing families, living in towns, it is considerable. But, though the use of tea is more common than could be wished, it is not yet general among the labouring poor: and if we have regard to numbers, their share of the consumption is comparatively small; especially if we reckon the value in money.

‘ Still you exclaim, tea is a luxury. If you mean fine hyson tea, sweetened with refined sugar, and softened with cream, I readily admit it to be so. But this is not the tea of the poor. Spring water, just coloured with a few leaves of the lowest-priced tea, and sweetened with the brownest sugar, is the luxury for which you reproach them. To this they have recourse from mere necessity: and were they now to be deprived of this, they would immediately be reduced to bread and water. Tea-drinking is not the cause, but the consequence, of the distresses of the poor.

‘ After all, it appears a very strange thing, that the common people of any European nation should be obliged to use, as a part of their daily diet, two articles imported from opposite sides of the earth. But if high taxes, in consequence of expensive wars, and the changes which time insensibly makes in the circumstances of countries, have debarred the poorer inhabitants of this kingdom the use of such things as are the natural products of the soil, and forced them to recur to those of foreign growth; surely this is not their fault. I have no pleasure, however, in defending this practice

tice of tea-drinking among the lower people; because I know it is made the occasion of much idle gossiping among the women; and also because the money thus expended, though far from sufficient to supply a family with beer, would yet go some way towards it.' p. 38.

Let the reader ask himself what can be saved out of nine shillings a week for beer to be purchased at the alehouse; and as to making beer at home, what poor man can afford to buy the utensils? Surely it would be more judicious in the legislature, to abolish entirely the tax on beer, that every man might have a chance of enjoying the produce of his own country.

But the poor, it will be said, have always a resource in the parish rates: but why should they have recourse to charity for that support, which they are willing to derive from industry?

'It is manifest indeed (as our author justly observes) that the poor-rate is now in part a substitute for wages. And a miserable substitute it is, for the following reasons:—1st. Because the distribution of it being left very much in the discretion of the overseers of the poor, who in saving the parish money save their own, and who in distributing it do not always regard strict justice, many modest and deserving families, that cannot live entirely without relief, receive not sufficient relief from it, chusing rather to suffer oppression than to incur the ill-will of their superiors by applying to a magistrate for redress. 2dly. Because the receiving that from the parish in the precarious way of alms, which they ought to receive in wages as the reasonable recompence of labour, is a great discouragement to the industrious poor, tends to sink their minds in dependency, and to drive them into desperate courses. 3dly. Because sometimes the men, either from resentment at the hard usage they have met with, are provoked to desert their families; or else too often, from mere despair of being able to maintain them honestly, they and their wives betake themselves to wicked courses: the example corrupts their children, whose minds being thus tainted remain ever after dead to all virtuous impressions. 4thly. Because, wherever large sums of money are raised for the use of the poor, a great temptation is laid in the way of unprincipled overseers, who, by embezzling a part of what comes into their hands, rob the poor in the first instance; and afterwards, to cover the villainy, perjure themselves in swearing to their accounts.' p. 25.

We hope that the system of relieving the poor by the parish-rates will not be changed; for, notwithstanding some abuses to which the disposal of them is liable, the principle of them is founded on justice. Every man has a right to support in the country which gave him birth: and if the means of

improving his situation by his own industry are frequently denied to him, or but scantily afforded, it is but right that they who enjoy affluence should contribute to this support. It would be well, indeed, if application were seldomer made to these funds: but what can a poor man with a family do in these times? can he lay up money to support himself in sickness or in old age?

The poor-rates necessarily increase with the national debt, as the author shows by the following table—

*Year.	Revenue.	National Debt.	Inter. of N. Debt.	Poor-Rat
1685	2,061,856			665,362
1703	5,561,944	16,394,702	1,310,942	700,000
1753	6,690,000	74,571,840	2,396,717	1,000,000
1775	10,000,000	135,943,051	4,440,821	1,529,780
1786	14,405,702	239,154,880	9,275,769	2,004,238'

P. 46.

This must necessarily be the case: for, if at this moment there is a class of poor which can but just save itself from coming on the parish, as soon as an increase of taxes takes place, and consequently an increase in family expenses, this class must be thrown upon the parish, and the rates must be increased.

We by no means agree with our author in all his plans. What is said on small and large farms, seems to us entirely unfounded. In the present state of agriculture, a small farm must ruin the possessor: for the expense of stocking it, and of purchasing utensils, is too great for the gains. Small farms are less numerous now than formerly, from a natural cause: every thing is dearer, a larger capital is requisite, and the capital must be always in proportion to the size of the farms. The engrossment and over-enlargement of farms, may sometimes be very hurtful,—as certainly is the over-enlargement of estates: but the land-owner should be prohibited from increasing his estate beyond a certain amount, before we throw any restraint on the occupier. But, if we might raise some partial objections to the work, the general tendency of it is good; and we could have wished that the author, by printing it in a less expensive form, had made it the vehicle for general information.

Six Sermons preached before the Right Hon. Paul Le Mesurier, Lord Mayor of the City of London. By George Stepney Townley, M. A. Chaplain to his Lordship, Rector of the United Parishes of St. Stephen, Walbrook, and St. Bennet Sherchog, and Lecturer of St. Dunstan's in the East. 8vo. 3s. Boards. Rivingtons.

THE subjects of these Sermons are as follow :—On the Holy Communion—On setting God before us—On the Fast Day—On Equality—On Liberty—On seeking the Peace of the City.

The first was preached before the lord-mayor, the aldermen, sheriffs, and the common-council of the city of London, on the day appointed for administering the holy communion to the members of the corporation. In opening this discourse, the preacher observes, that, as

‘ In this nation, among those who profess to reverence the authority of Christ some object—to any participation of the holy communion; others—to the mode of communion enjoined in our established church; and others—to the interference of the legislature in requiring a compliance with that mode, in those who are to be entrusted with power under government, (p. 4.)

it may not be inapplicable to the occasion to consider, and endeavour to remove, some of the objections advanced on these three grounds: and this, no doubt, he effected to the satisfaction of his audience; though, in respect to the Test Act, he forgot to mention, amongst the arguments to support its necessity, the act which, in its consummate wisdom, the legislature annually passes, to indemnify from its salutary penalties those who never comply with it.

In the second sermon, the principle contained in the text is considered, and the benefits that result from adherence to it, stated.

The third sermon seeks to illustrate the text, by pointing out instances of the *want* of righteousness amongst ourselves, and the lesson which the example of our continental foes points out. The picture drawn of our own profligacy we will cite—

‘ In the rising generation we behold an attachment to frivolous pursuits, an aversion to reasonable restraint, an indifference to the judgment of superiors, an immoderate love of pleasure—dispositions unfavourable to the cause of truth, virtue, and religion; and the more so, when moral obligations are considered only as subservient to convenience, and natural and revealed religion are treated, as if unbelievers had demonstrated both to be false.

‘ Among those persons, whose situation in life, being removed from the evils and temptations attendant on the extreme either of poverty or riches, is the most favourable to happiness, because most favourable to virtue, there is found a misplaced ambition of copying licentious manners, and adopting irreligious sentiments; apparent in their profaning the Sabbath, absenting themselves from public worship, remaining ignorant of the Scriptures, and disregarding the religion of the blessed Jesus.

‘ While we lament the evils, which originate with the most profligate of the people, and, by extending their baneful influence, induce, not merely the most distressed of the poor, but (as our courts of justice now more than ever attest) persons entrusted with property, confidential dependants, “to steal, and take God’s holy name in vain;” is it not likewise dreadful to reflect, that, in the higher ranks of society, among those who know, or have every means of knowing, “the way of God more perfectly,” there are numbers, who “have altogether broken the yoke, and burst the bonds;” who are distinguished for poisoning the sources of public spirit and of domestic happiness by gaming, duelling, and adultery; “glorying in their shame,” disavowing responsibility, and saying in their hearts, “Who is the Lord that we should fear him?”

‘ When folly and profaneness, fraud and injustice, vice and infidelity, are thus predominant, I cannot flatter you that our national guilt is not already sufficient to draw down upon us any judgment of God.—Can we seriously reflect on these things without a real concern for our own nation? Can we feel that concern without deprecating the judgments of God? For, if it be the unavoidable consequence of immorality and contempt of religion to weaken and dissolve the bands of society, let us not so grossly flatter ourselves, as to imagine that our condition is secure; or, that the Almighty, though “rich in mercy,” will protect and preserve those, who persist in violating his commands, in rejecting his word and ordinances, and in abusing his mercy and loving kindness.’ p. 40.

The next discourse offers a justification of inequality of conditions from Scripture, and the constitution of our nature.

Sermon the fifth is a zealous anti-jacobin harangue,—and the last, an earnest exhortation to promote the interests of the corporate constitution of London.

These Sermons are written in an easy style, and are better composed than the generality of those we have seen from corporation chaplains.

A Treatise on the Improvement of Canal Navigation; exhibiting the numerous Advantages to be derived from small Canals, and Boats of two to five Feet wide, containing from two to five Tons Burthen. With a Description of the Machinery for facilitating Conveyance by Water through the most mountainous Countries, independent of Locks and Aqueducts: including Observations on the great Importance of Water Communications, with Thoughts on, and Designs for, Aqueducts and Bridges, of Iron and Wood. Illustrated with Seventeen Plates. By R. Fulton, Civil Engineer. 4to. 18s. Boards. L. and J. Taylor. 1796.

EARLY in the history of mankind, the discovery was made, that, in the transporting of goods from one place to another, a great deal of labour might be saved, if a river or the sea afforded the means of a conveyance by water. A long time probably elapsed, before men discovered that water was at their command, and that it was in their power to introduce artificial channels into a country. The sea and the rivers afforded them great advantages: the wind and the current were at times in their favour; but to balance these advantages, the river must be ascended against the course of the stream, and the winds frequently opposed their return to their native port. A canal is uniformly the same whilst filled with water: the same quantity of labour is required for the same commodities in going or returning: but it is not exposed to the delays resulting from inundations in rivers, nor to the dangers of storms at sea. The only thing to be considered in the forming of them, is the quantity of merchandise which they are likely to convey, and whether the expense in cutting them is likely to be repaid by the advantage of water over land carriage. If the country is mountainous, and one canal is connected with another by means of locks, the expense of forming these locks, and the delay in raising or falling the goods from one level to another, may be such as to destroy entirely the superiority of water carriage: and in fact the ingenious contrivances pointed out in this work, may not be adequate to the removal of all the difficulties which the inequality of a country may present to the most experienced engineer.

Whatever these difficulties may be in other countries, there are few, if any, of this kind to be found in England. We have water in plenty, and, comparatively speaking, little or no asperity of road to overcome: and if half the money employed in the present thoughtless war had been expended wisely on our own country, the commodities might have been transferred from any one county to another at a third of the present expense, and with a saving to the nation, of many acres of land,

now cultivated solely for horses employed on the road. From the larger canals little troughs might have been made to almost every farm-house, and a boat from two to five tons burthen would have been a common conveyance from the barn to the market. Passage boats would convey, at a small expense, people from one end of the kingdom to the other; and the activity and industry of the kingdom would increase a thousand fold.

In this work many important considerations are proposed to all persons engaged in any canal undertaking; and they appear to us to be deserving of the highest attention. In many places, the expense of canals, for vessels from thirty to fifty tons burthen, may terrify the money-holder from risking his capital upon them: when, if they are adapted to vessels under ten tons burthen, they may be undertaken with the greatest advantage. Plans of boats on this scale are given; and the contrivance of placing small wheels under them, for transferring them from one canal to another, is both ingenious and seems to us likely to answer. Instead of locks, it is proposed to transfer the boats, when one canal is elevated above the other, by inclined planes, or by a perpendicular lift. When inclined planes are used, the first difficulty is to raise the barge out of the water, which will consequently descend by its own weight, and draw up an empty or a less heavy barge from the lower canal. To raise the barge out of the water, the contrivance is easy and simple. Near to the higher canal, a pit is sunk, in which is suspended a large empty barrel, intended as the power, by means of the wheel and axis, to raise the barge. Chains are fixed to the barge to be raised, which of course will require a certain power at the other end to move it. A tube communicates from the upper canal with the barrel in the pit, by which the barrel is filled with water, and consequently its weight may be made greater than that of any loaded barge on the canal; and, after the barge is raised, a valve is opened in the barrel, and the water issuing out is conveyed, by means of a tube, to the lower canal, and thus the little water that is lost to the first, is gained by the second canal. Instead of this barrel, an overshot mill is proposed to produce the same effect; and experience will best determine the superior advantages of either. For the perpendicular lift, the expense of building the walls may be greater than that of making the plane: but this may be compensated by the diminution of friction in every transport.

When a canal is to be made in a mountainous country, an iron aqueduct is proposed for the conveyance between two hills. The idea is a bold one, but not on that account less praiseworthy. Some excellent remarks are also made on the
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comparative advantages of bridges made of iron, wood, or stone: and though to many of our readers the author's notions will appear chimerical, we have heard too much and read too much of the censures on every bold attempt, to call that a chimera, which in a few years' time may be realised. The first man who attempted to make a stone-bridge, was probably called alternately a fool and a prodigy by his neighbours: our author cannot expect to be safe from similar censures, and ought not to be surprised if his notions on the span of an arch should meet with a similar fate.

The language of the work is rather too much inflated in some parts; but where the contrivances are described, it is sufficiently plain and clear. In treating a subject of this kind, an attempt at any rhetorical flourishes is not desirable, and it seldom succeeds. The work will be useful, chiefly for engineers and persons in trade; and to them it might be still more adapted, if confined to the explanation of the plates: but though we thus recommend it to persons particularly engaged in the making of canals, we should do injustice to its merits, if we did not point it out to the members of our legislature, many of whom are perhaps not sensible, that, by the ridiculous remarks in their speeches, they frequently become the jest of every one the least acquainted with the rudiments of mechanics and hydrostatics.

Poems. by Lady Manners. Royal 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Bell.

WHEN we reflect on the dissipation by which our fashionable females are distinguished, it gives us pleasure to have opportunities of pointing out exceptions. That the compositions of which this volume consists, are highly reputable to their author, we doubt not our readers will admit, from the specimen subjoined—

‘ *ON RETURNING TO LEHENA,*

In May, MDCCLXXXIII.

‘ Welcome once more, my native land !

What joy to breathe the perfum'd gale,
Which, as immers'd in thought I stand,
Salutes me from the hawthorn vale !

‘ O Solitude ! of mind serene,

Parent of Innocence and Peace,

Preside for ever o'er this scene,

Nor let this grateful silence cease !

‘ I've

- ‘ I’ve left the gayer paths of life,
 Where Reason ne’er could Pleasure find,
 Where ever restless, busy Strife
 Leaves look’d-for Happiness behind.
- ‘ There Flattery o’er my youthful cheek
 Has spread a momentary glow ;
 There Vanity has made me seek
 The gilded roofs of hidden Woe.
- ‘ There have I seen neglected Worth,
 Abash’d, decline her honest head,
 While Vice in gaudy robes came forth,
 By Pride and Adulation led.
- ‘ There Envy sleeps the poison’d dart,
 To strike at Merit’s open breast ;
 There smooth, insinuating Art
 Deceives the wisest and the best.
- ‘ The nobles, who were wont to raise
 To Liberty a spotless shrine,
 To Av’rice now devote their days,
 For her unhallow’d garlands twine.
- ‘ The gentle virgin, who of yore
 Thought worth and happiness the same,
 Contemns what she rever’d before,
 And Truth she calls an empty name.
- ‘ The beauty, whom relentless Time
 Has robb’d of every boasted grace,
 Retains the follies of her prime,
 And decks with borrow’d bloom her face.
- ‘ But say, amid such scenes as these,
 Can I still hope my mind was free ?
 Say, in this more than Cretan maze,
 Was I devoted still to thee ?
- ‘ Did ne’er Ambition swell my breast,
 Or sparkle in my dazzled eye ?
 Did ne’er offended pride molest
 My hours, or prompt the heaving sigh ?
- ‘ Yes : I have felt their baneful power,
 Have own’d their universal sway,
 Was tempted in one thoughtless hour
 Their shameful dictates to obey.

‘ But Reason rais’d my fainting soul,
Ere I the magic draught could sip;
Ere I had touch’d the Syren’s bowl,
She turn’d it from my eager lip.

“ Amoret,” she cried, “ for ever leave
This scene where vice and folly reign;
The time you’ve lost in crowds retrieve,
Nor hope for bliss but on the plain.”

‘ With this kind counsel I complied,
No longer worldly splendour prize;
Nor shall I build my nobler pride
But on becoming good and wise.

‘ Accept then, Solitude, my prayer,
A wearied wanderer receive;
Strengthen’d by thee I will prepare
By spotless virtue for the grave.’ P. 35.

The typography of this volume has considerable merit, and the prefixed portrait of the author is exquisitely finished.

The English Encyclopædia: being a Collection of Treatises, and a Dictionary of Terms, illustrative of the Arts and Sciences. Partly Abridged from the Encyclopædia Britannica, with copious Additions, and new Treatises, selected from modern Authors of the first Eminence in the different Branches of Science. 4to. Vols. I. and II. and Part I. of Vol. III. 2l. 15s. Boards. Kearsley. 1795.

‘ TO facilitate the labours of the industrious and the ingenious, to guide the hand of the diligent mechanic, and to extend the pursuits of the skilful artist, are (says the editor in his Address) the chief objects of publications like this; which, as their title of Encyclopædia expresses, embrace, in the complete circle of the arts and sciences, the true principles of social life.

‘ In proportion only as knowledge is diffused, and the advantages of it are clearly understood, the importance of such a work can be justly estimated. It presents, not solely a barren gratification to curiosity, but it is the spring of action, and the source of opulence: it instructs us to supply by human arts the deficiencies of nature; it controuls fancy by experience; and placing before our eyes a long series of experiments, it enables us to reject the false, to adopt the true, and to improve the useful.

‘ Thus in husbandry, theory is corrected or confirmed by practice: instead of abandoning the farmer to the dangerous suggestions of a lively imagination, he is here taught to enlarge his expectations,

or to contract his hopes, by the success or disappointments of others. By turning to a single article, he is not only introduced to the various instruments, which upon trial have been found best calculated to diminish his toils and advance his interests; he is not only made acquainted with their names and their construction, their principles and their purposes, but he sees at once the effects that they have produced, and the specific proportions in which they have answered.

‘He pursues the clue, and it gradually unfolds to his sight the accumulated treasures of successive ages; he beholds the productions of happier souls transplanted to his own. He is impelled by example to revolve the means by which they may be multiplied and improved; his mind expands with his enquiries; he traces the source of his own wealth, and of his country’s prosperity; and he exults while he reflects, that the increase of herbage augments the number of his flocks and herds, which in their turn contribute to fertilize the pastures they graze in.’

That a judicious selection of what is truly *useful* from the common stock of knowledge, circulated cheaply, and illustrated by the aid of elegant and accurate engravings, must prove a benefit to the community, no one at present, we apprehend, will be inclined to deny; and it is a conviction of this sort that has induced us to wave, in the present instance, the rule we generally observe, not to notice publications that are *incomplete*.

No one is ignorant of the great national work of this sort undertaken in France. That such a work, completed by such men as were engaged in its compilation, ought to be considered as a *common benefit*, cannot be denied: but how few are the libraries in which this immense and costly performance is included! consequently how limited must be its real utility! It is a mountain of knowledge, to be admired for its grandeur rather than venerated for its usefulness. It is a huge pile, of which even the members are too massive for any practical purpose. On these considerations, there can be no doubt of the advantages which the public may derive from a work like the present, which, keeping utility in view, appears to us equally removed from brevity and diffuseness; and which cannot but have the advantage of all similar works of an earlier date, from the opportunity afforded the editor of taking in all the improvements and inventions which have occurred to the present period.

On an attentive examination of many of the treatises, we accordingly find many traits of judgment in the compilers, who have made their selections from such authors as include the most recent and valuable discoveries: and the arrangement
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of the materials so selected is, at least with very few exceptions, no less judicious. We particularly distinguish, in these respects, those treatises which stand highest in point of importance. That on Chemistry is principally from Chaptal, but includes every thing valuable in cotemporary publications on the same subject, and a table of the new nomenclature, which it invariably adopts. The same may be said of the treatises on Dyeing and Bleaching, in which nothing is omitted that the most recent publications could afford. The treatise on Education is from Rousseau, certainly the greatest writer on the subject, not excepting Mr. Locke: we observe, however, with pleasure, the judicious way in which the editor has pruned it of many eccentricities, and added many material passages from other writers. The treatise on Anatomy, though principally taken from a writer of the most sterling merit, and including every discovery since his time, we apprehend, might have been improved by a departure from the original arrangement. The plates are certainly the best that have appeared on the same scale, and are therefore highly worthy of the preference given them to later engravings. The treatise on Electricity is almost wholly taken from that judicious writer the late Mr. George Adams. Without being minute on points with which every electrician is acquainted, it contains enough for the information of those wholly uninformed, and yet presents an ample share of what is new, curious, and speculative, for the gratification of the inquisitive philosopher. A few of the latter sections include an account of the electrical powers of animal bodies, and a sketch of the discoveries of Galvani, respecting the functions of the nerves. The treatise on Farriery has greatly the advantage over any other compilation on the same subject, besides possessing much original matter drawn from the schools of the veterinary college. The anatomical description of the horse, with excellent plates, partly from Stubbs and partly from a later work, form a novel and very valuable addition to it.

It would lead us far beyond our prescribed limits, to enter into a particular examination of any of the general articles. Those, however, who will take the trouble to compare them even with the enlarged edition of Chambers, and other popular works of the kind, will find cause for approbation though it is to be admitted the work owes much to those from which the editor has avowedly collected.

It would be invidious to notice a few trifling deviations from accuracy in the references to the plates. The plates themselves are, beyond comparison, the best we have noticed in any similar work; and in an undertaking of such magnitude, it would be singular indeed if it were conducted without occasional

casional mistakes.—On the whole, however, it is but justice to conclude with giving it as our decided opinion, that the work has thus far been well conducted, and promises to be eminently useful to the community.

Two Letters addressed to a Member of the present Parliament, on the Proposals for Peace with the Regicide Directory of France. By the Right Hon. Edmund Burke. 8vo. 3s. 6d: Rivingtons. 1796.

THE length of time that has elapsed since the work before us was first promised to the public, must naturally have increased that curiosity which has always been excited by the literary productions of Mr. Burke. The name and reputation of the author,—the importance of the subject,—and the peculiar period at which it has been introduced, all indeed combine to render it highly interesting; yet those who have been accustomed to peruse the more recent political performances of Mr. Burke, will not be disappointed if this last is rather calculated to amuse than to improve; the same brilliancy of colouring, the same exuberance of fancy, the same lofty flights of imagination, which distinguished the offspring of that gentleman in youth, still adorn them in age; but the lineaments of the father are also to be traced in the same wildness of ideas, the same intemperance of language, the same pertinacious adherence to his own opinions, and the same contempt for the judgment of the rest of mankind.

The pamphlet contains two letters to a member of the present parliament, on the proposals for peace with a regicide directory; and in the very title of the work may be anticipated the contents. It is on a *regicide* peace that Mr. Burke has delivered his sentiments: and it is the dreadful consequences of such a peace that present themselves to his perturbed imagination in every page of the performance; it is the ghost of Banquo that perpetually pushes him from his seat: he beholds it assume the shape of a tiger from Bengal; he hears its roarings in the lobby of the house of commons, while the trembling members precipitate their flight from the back windows of the house. *It devours our gracious sovereign, and his exemplary queen,—those princesses whose beauty and modest elegance are the ornaments of the country,—the prince of Wales and duke of York, the hope and pride of the nation,—the whole body of our excellent clergy,—the judges,—the peers and commons,—our merchants and bankers,—and the citizens of our greatest and most flourishing cities.* And these are the sanguinary expectations impressed on the mind of Mr. Burke, by the simple circumstance

stance of an ambassador having been sent over to Paris, to put an end to a war, which, it is universally confessed, must in its continuance be equally ruinous to both nations.

The little success that can be expected from this measure, according to Mr. Burke, may be easily calculated from the result of our former pacific advances.

‘ The regicides were the first to declare war. We are the first to sue for peace. In proportion to the humility and perseverance we have shewn in our addresses, has been the obstinacy of their arrogance in rejecting our suit. The patience of their pride seems to have been worn out with the importunity of our courtship. Disgusted as they are with a conduct so different from all the sentiments by which they are themselves filled, they think to put an end to our vexatious solicitation by redoubling their insults.

‘ It happens frequently, that pride may reject a public advance, while interest listens to a secret suggestion of advantage. The opportunity has been afforded. At a very early period in the diplomacy of humiliation, a gentleman was sent on an errand, of which, from the motive of it, whatever the event might be, we can never be ashamed. Humanity cannot be degraded by humiliation. It is its very character to submit to such things. There is a consanguinity between benevolence and humility. They are virtues of the same stock. Dignity is of as good a race; but it belongs to the family of fortitude. In the spirit of that benevolence, we sent a gentleman to beseech the directory of Regicide, not to be quite so prodigal as their republick had been of judicial murder. We solicited them to spare the lives of some unhappy persons of the first distinction, whose safety at other times could not have been an object of solicitation. They had quitted France on the faith of the declaration of the rights of citizens. They never had been in the service of the regicides, nor at their hands had received any stipend. The very system and constitution of government that now prevails, was settled subsequent to their emigration. They were under the protection of Great Britain, and in his majesty's pay and service. Not an hostile invasion, but the disasters of the sea had thrown them upon a shore, more barbarous and inhospitable than the inclement ocean under the most pitiless of its storms. Here was an opportunity to express a feeling for the miseries of war; and to open some sort of conversation, which (after our publick overtures had glutted their pride), at a cautious and jealous distance, might lead to something like an accommodation. What was the event? A strange uncouth thing, a theatrical figure of the opera, his head shaded with three-coloured plumes, his body fantastically habited, strutted from the back scenes, and after a short speech, in the mock-heroic falsetto of stupid tragedy, delivered the gentleman
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who came to make the representation into the custody of a guard, with directions not to lose sight of him for a moment; and then ordered him to be sent from Paris in two hours.' p. 26.

‘It was not enough, that the speech from the throne in the opening of the session in 1795, threw out oglings and glances of tenderness. Lest this coquetting should seem too cold and ambiguous, without waiting for its effect, the violent passion for a relation to the regicides, produced a direct message from the crown, and its consequences from the two houses of parliament. On the part of the regicides these declarations could not be entirely passed by without notice: but in that notice they discovered still more clearly the bottom of their character. The offer made to them by the message to parliament was hinted at in their answer; but in an obscure and oblique manner as before. They accompanied their notice of the indications manifested on our side, with every kind of insolent and taunting reflection. The regicide directory, the day on which, in their gipsy jargon, they call the 5th of Pluviose, in return for our advances, charge us with eluding our declarations under “evasive formalities and frivolous pretexts.” What these pretexts and evasions were, they do not say, and I have never heard. But they do not rest there. They proceed to charge us, and, as it should seem, our allies in the mass, with direct perfidy; they are so conciliatory in their language as to hint that this pernicious character is not new in our proceedings. However, notwithstanding this our habitual perfidy, they will offer peace, “on conditions as moderate”—as what? as reason and as equity require? No! as moderate “as are suitable to their national dignity.” National dignity in all treaties I do admit is an important consideration. They have given us an useful hint on that subject: but dignity, hitherto, has belonged to the mode of proceeding, not to the matter of a treaty. Never before has it been mentioned as the standard for rating the conditions of peace; no, never by the most violent of conquerors. Indemnification is capable of some estimate; dignity has no standard. It is impossible to guess what acquisitions pride and ambition may think fit for their dignity. But lest any doubt should remain on what they think for their dignity, the regicides in the next paragraph tell us “that they will have no peace with their enemies, until they have reduced them to a state, which will put them under an impossibility of pursuing their wretched projects;” that is, in plain French or English, until they have accomplished our utter and irretrievable ruin. This is their pacific language. It flows from their unalterable principle in whatever language they speak, or whatever steps they take, whether of real war, or of pretended pacification. They have never, to do them justice, been at much trouble in concealing their intentions. We were as obstinately re-

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solved to think them not in earnest : but I confess jests of this sort, whatever their urbanity may be, are not much to my taste.

‘ To this conciliatory and amicable publick communication, our sole answer, in effect, is this—“ Citizen regicides ! whenever *you* find yourselves in the humour, you may have a peace with *us*. That is a point you may always command. We are constantly in attendance, and nothing you can do shall hinder us from the renewal of our supplications. You may turn us out at the door ; but we will jump in at the window.”

‘ To those, who do not love to contemplate the fall of human greatness, I do not know a more mortifying spectacle, than to see the assembled majesty of the crowned heads of Europe waiting as patient suitors in the anti-chamber of Regicide. They wait, it seems, until the sanguinary tyrant Carnot, shall have snorted away the fumes of the indigested blood of his sovereign. Then, when sunk on the down of usurped pomp, he shall have sufficiently indulged his meditations with what monarch he shall next glut his ravening maw, he may condescend to signify that it is his pleasure to be awake ; and that he is at leisure to receive the proposals of his high and mighty clients for the terms on which he may respite the execution of the sentence he has passed upon them. At the opening of those doors, what a sight it must be to behold the plenipotentiaries of royal impotence, in the precedency which they will intrigue to obtain, and which will be granted to them according to the seniority of their degradation, sneaking into the regicide presence, and with the reliques of the smile which they had dressed up, for the levee of their masters, still flickering on their curled lips, presenting the faded remains of their courtly graces, to meet the scornful, ferocious, sardonic grin of a bloody ruffian, who, whilst he is receiving their homage, is measuring them with his eye, and fitting to their size the slider of his guillotine ! These ambassadors may easily return as good courtiers as they went ; but can they ever return from that degrading residence, loyal and faithful subjects ; or with any true affection to their master, or true attachment to the constitution, religion, or laws of their country ? There is great danger that they who enter smiling into this Trophonian cave, will come out of it sad and serious conspirators ; and such will continue as long as they live. They will become true conductors of contagion to every country, which has had the misfortune to send them to the source of that electricity. At best they will become totally indifferent to good and evil, to one institution or another. This species of indifference is but too generally distinguishable in those who have been much employed in foreign courts ; but in the present case the evil must be aggravated without measure ; for they go from their country, not with the pride of the old character, but in a state of the lowest degradation ; and what must happen in their place of residence can have no effect in raising them to the level of

true dignity, or of chaste self estimation, either as men, or as representatives of crowned heads.' P. 31.

How far lord Malmesbury may be pleased with the application of the latter part of this extract, it rests for his feelings to determine.

From the danger that may arise from any negotiation with a regicide directory, Mr. Burke next passes to the apprehensions that ought to be entertained from the immediate divisions which distract this country—

' It cannot be concealed. We are a divided people. But in divisions, where a part is to be taken, we are to make a muster of our strength. I have often endeavoured to compute and to class those who, in any political view, are to be called the people. Without doing something of this sort we must proceed absurdly. We should not be much wiser, if we pretended to very great accuracy in our estimate : but I think, in the calculation I have made, the error cannot be very material. In England and Scotland, I compute that those of adult age, not declining in life, of tolerable leisure for such discussions, and of some means of information, more or less, and who are above menial dependence, (or what virtually is such) may amount to about four hundred thousand. There is such a thing as a natural representative of the people. This body is that representative; and on this body, more than on the legal constituent, the artificial representative depends. This is the British publick; and it is a publick very numerous. The rest, when feeble, are the objects of protection; when strong, the means of force. They who affect to consider that part of us in any other light, insult while they cajole us; they do not want us for counsellors in deliberation, but to lift us as soldiers for battle.

' Of these four hundred thousand political citizens, I look upon one fifth, or about eighty thousand, to be pure jacobins; utterly incapable of amendment; objects of eternal vigilance; and when they break out, of legal constraint. On these, no reason, no argument, no example, no venerable authority, can have the slightest influence. They desire a change; and they will have it if they can. If they cannot have it by English cabal, they will make no sort of scruple of having it by the cabal of France, into which already they are virtually incorporated. It is only their assured and confident expectation of the advantages of French fraternity and the approaching blessings of regicide intercourse, that skins over their mischievous dispositions with a momentary quiet.

' This minority is great and formidable. I do not know whether if I aimed at the total overthrow of a kingdom, I should wish to be encumbered with a larger body of partizans. They are more easily disciplined and directed than if the number were greater. These, by their spirit of intrigue, and by their restless agitating activity,

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are of a force far superior to their numbers ; and if times grew the least critical, have the means of debauching or intimidating many of those who are now found, as well as of adding to their force large bodies of the more passive part of the nation. This minority is numerous enough to make a mighty cry for peace or for war, or for any object they are led vehemently to desire. By passing from place to place with a velocity incredible, and diversifying their character and description, they are capable of mimicking the general voice. We must not always judge of the generality of the opinion by the noise of the acclamation.

‘ The majority, the other four fifths, is perfectly sound ; and of the best possible disposition to religion, to government, to the true and undivided interest of their country. Such men are naturally disposed to peace. They who are in possession of all they wish are languid and improvident. With this fault, (and I admit it's existence in all it's extent) they would not endure to hear of a peace that led to the ruin of every thing for which peace is dear to them. However, the desire of peace is essentially the weak side of that kind of men. All men that are ruined, are ruined on the side of their natural propensities. There they are unguarded. Above all, good men do not suspect that their destruction is attempted through their virtues. This their enemies are perfectly aware of : and accordingly, they, the most turbulent of mankind, who never made a scruple to shake the tranquillity of their country to it's center, raise a continual cry for peace with France. Peace with Regicide, and war with the rest of the world, is their motto. From the beginning, and even whilst the French gave the blows, and we hardly opposed the *vis inertiae* to their efforts, from that day to this hour, like importunate Guinea-fowls crying one note day and night, they have called for peace.’ P. 66.

After thus warning us to distrust the purity of those who exclaim for peace, Mr. Burke proceeds to state our comparative means, with those during the reigns of William and Anne, for prosecuting the war—

‘ It is for us at present to recollect what we have been ; and to consider what, if we please, we may be still. At the period of those wars, our principal strength was found in the resolution of the people ; that in the resolution of a part only and of the then whole, which bore no proportion to our existing magnitude. England and Scotland were not united at the beginning of that mighty struggle. When, in the course of the contest, they were conjoined, it was in a raw, an ill-cemented, an unproductive union. For the whole duration of the war, and long after, the names, and other outward and visible signs of approximation, rather augmented than diminished our insular feuds. They were rather the causes of new discontents and new troubles, than promoters of cordiality and affection.

affection. The now single and potent Great Britain was then not only two countries, but, from the party heats in both, and the divisions formed in each of them, each of the old kingdoms within itself in effect was made up of two hostile nations. Ireland, now so large a source of the common opulence and power, which wisely managed might be made much more beneficial and much more effective, was then the heaviest of the burthens. An army not much less than forty thousand men, was drawn from the general effort, to keep that kingdom in a poor, unfruitful, and resourceless subjection.

‘ Such was the state of the empire. The state of our finances was worse, if possible. Every branch of the revenue became less productive after the Revolution. Silver, not as now a sort of counter, but the body of the current coin, was reduced so low, as not to have above three parts in four of the value in the shilling. It required a dead expence of three millions sterling to renew the coinage. Publick credit, that great but ambiguous principle, which has so often been predicted as the cause of our certain ruin, but which for a century has been the constant companion, and often the means, of our prosperity and greatness, had it's origin, and was cradled, I may say, in bankruptcy and beggary. At this day we have seen parties contending to be admitted, at a moderate premium, to advance eighteen millions to the exchequer. For infinitely smaller loans, the chancellor of the exchequer of that day, Montagu, the father of publick credit, counter-securing the state by the appearance of the city, with the lord-mayor of London at his side, was obliged, like an agent at an election, to go cap in hand from shop to shop, to borrow an hundred pound and even smaller sums. When made up in driblets as they could, their best securities were at an interest of 12 per cent. Even the paper of the bank (now at par with cash, and even sometimes preferred to it) was often at a discount of twenty per cent. By this the state of the rest may be judged.

‘ As to our commerce, the imports and exports of the nation, now six and forty million, did not then amount to ten. The inland trade, which is commonly passed by in this sort of estimates, but which, in part growing out of the foreign, and connected with it, is more advantageous, and more substantially nutritive to the state, is not only grown in a proportion of near five to one as the foreign, but has been augmented, at least, in a tenfold proportion. When I came to England, I remember but one river navigation, the rate of carriage on which was limited by an act of parliament. It was made in the reign of William the Third; I mean that of the Aire and Calder. The rate was settled at thirteen pence. So high a price demonstrated the feebleness of these beginnings of our inland intercourse. In my time, one of the longest and sharpest contests I remember in your house, and which rather resembled a violent contention

contention amongst national parties than a local dispute, was, as well as I can recollect, to hold the price up to threepence. Even this, which a very scanty justice to the proprietors required, was done with infinite difficulty. As to private credit, there were not, as I best remember, twelve bankers shops at that time out of London. In this their number, when I first saw the country, I cannot be quite exact; but certainly those machines of domestick credit were then very few indeed. They are now in almost every market town: and this circumstance (whether the thing be carried to an excess or not) demonstrates the astonishing encrease of private confidence, of general circulation, and of internal commerce; an encrease out of all proportion to the growth of the foreign trade. Our naval strength in the time of king William's war was nearly matched by that of France; and though conjoined with Holland, then a maritime power hardly inferior to our own, even with that force we were not always victorious. Though finally superior, the allied fleets experienced many unpleasant reverses on their own element. In two years three thousand vessels were taken from the English trade. On the continent we lost almost every battle we fought.' P. 77.

The praise which Mr. Burke ascribes to the fame of William and of the British nation, is dextrously transferred to the conduct of the present minister on the commencement of hostilities—

'For what have I entered into all this detail? To what purpose have I recalled your view to the end of the last century? It has been done to shew that the British nation was then a great people—to point out how and by what means they came to be exalted above the vulgar level, and to take that lead which they assumed among mankind. To qualify us for that pre-eminence, we had then an high mind, and a constancy unconquerable; we were then inspired with no flashy passions; but such as were durable as well as warm; such as corresponded to the great interests we had at stake. This force of character was inspired, as all such spirit must ever be, from above. Government gave the impulse. As well may we fancy, that, of itself the sea will swell, and that without winds the billows will insult the adverse shore, as that the gross mass of the people will be moved, and elevated, and continue by a steady and permanent direction to bear upon one point, without the influence of superior authority, or superior mind.

'This impulse ought, in my opinion, to have been given in this war; and it ought to have been continued to it at every instant. It is made, if ever war was made, to touch all the great springs of action in the human breast. It ought not to have been a war of apology. The minister had, in this conflict, wherewithal to glory in success; to be consoled in adversity; to hold high his principle

in all fortunes. If it were not given him to support the falling edifice, he ought to bury himself under the ruins of the civilized world. All the art of Greece, and all the pride and power of eastern monarchs, never heaped upon their ashes so grand a monument.

‘ There were days when his great mind was up to the crisis of the world he is called to act in. His manly eloquence was equal to the elevated wisdom of such sentiments. But the little have triumphed over the great; an unnatural, (as it should seem) not an unusual victory. I am sure you cannot forget with how much uneasiness we heard in conversation, the language of more than one gentleman at the opening of this contest, “that he was willing to try the war for a year or two, and if it did not succeed, then to vote for peace.” As if war was a matter of experiment! As if you could take it up or lay it down as an idle frolick! As if the dire goddess that presides over it, with her murderous spear in her hand, and her gorgon at her breast, was a coquette to be flirted with? We ought with reverence to approach that tremendous divinity, that loves courage, but commands counsel. War never leaves, where it found a nation. It is never to be entered into without a mature deliberation; not a deliberation lengthened out into a perplexing indecision, but a deliberation leading to a sure and fixed judgment. When so taken up it is not to be abandoned without reason as valid, as fully, and as extensively considered. Peace may be made as unadvisedly as war. Nothing is so rash as fear; and the counsels of pusillanimity very rarely put off, whilst they are always sure to aggravate, the evils from which they would fly.

‘ In that great war carried on against Louis the XIVth, for near eighteen years, government spared no pains to satisfy the nation, that though they were to be animated by a desire of glory, glory was not their ultimate object: but that every thing dear to them, in religion, in law, in liberty, every thing which as freemen, as Englishmen, and as citizens of the great commonwealth of Christendom, they had at heart, was then at stake. This was to know the true art of gaining the affections and confidence of an high-minded people; this was to understand human nature. A danger to avert a danger—a present inconvenience and suffering to prevent a foreseen future, and a worse calamity—these are the motives that belong to an animal, who, in his constitution, is at once adventurous and provident; circumspect and daring; whom his Creator has made, as the poet says, “of large discourse, looking before and after.” But never can a vehement and sustained spirit of fortitude be kindled in a people by a war of calculation. It has nothing that can keep the mind erect under the gusts of adversity. Even where men are willing, as sometimes they are, to barter their blood for lucre, to hazard their safety for the gratification of their avarice, the passion, which animates them to that sort of conflict, like all the short-sighted passions, must see it’s objects distinct and near at

hand. The passions of the lower order are hungry and impatient. Speculative plunder; contingent spoil; future, long adjourned, uncertain booty; pillage which must enrich a late posterity, and which possibly may not reach to posterity at all; these, for any length of time, will never support a mercenary war. The people are in the right. The calculation of profit in all such wars is false. On balancing the account of such wars, ten thousand hogsheds of sugar are purchased at ten thousand times their price. The blood of man should never be shed but to redeem the blood of man. It is well shed for our family, for our friends, for our God, for our country, for our kind. The rest is vanity; the rest is crime.

‘ In the war of the grand alliance, most of these considerations voluntarily and naturally had their part. Some were pressed into the service. The political interest easily went in the track of the natural sentiment. In the reverse course the carriage does not follow freely. I am sure the natural feeling, as I have just said, is a far more predominant ingredient in this war, than in that of any other that ever was waged by this kingdom.

‘ If the war made to prevent the union of two crowns upon one head was a just war, this, which is made to prevent the tearing all crowns from all heads which ought to wear them, and with the crowns to finite off the sacred heads themselves, this is a just war.

‘ If a war to prevent Louis the XIVth from imposing his religion was just, a war to prevent the murderers of Louis the XVIth from imposing their irreligion upon us is just: a war to prevent the operation of a system, which makes life without dignity, and death without hope, is a just war.

‘ If to preserve political independence and civil freedom to nations, was a just ground of war; a war to preserve national independence, property, liberty, life, and honour, from certain universal havock, is a war just, necessary, manly, pious; and we are bound to persevere in it by every principle, divine and human, as long as the system which menaces them all, and all equally, has an existence in the world.’ p. 89.

After again deprecating the dreadful consequences of peace, and stating the difficulties that attend all negotiations, the author thinks it necessary to add one word by way of apology for himself, before he concludes his first letter—

‘ In wishing this nominal peace not to be precipitated, I am sure no man living is less disposed to blame the present ministry than I am. Some of my oldest friends, (and I wish I could say it of more of them) make a part in that ministry. There are some indeed, “whom my dim eyes in vain explore.” In my mind, a greater calamity could not have fallen on the publick than the exclusion of one of them. But I drive away that, with other melan-

choly thoughts. A great deal ought to be said upon that subject or nothing. As to the distinguished persons to whom my friends who remain, are joined, if benefits, nobly and generously conferred, ought to procure good wishes, they are intitled to my best vows; and they have them all. They have administered to me the only consolation I am capable of receiving, which is to know that no individual will suffer by my thirty years service to the publick. If things should give us the comparative happiness of a struggle, I shall be found, I was going to say fighting, (that would be foolish) but dying by the side of Mr. Pitt. I must add, that if any thing defensive in our domestick system can possibly save us from the disasters of a regicide peace, he is the man to save us. If the finances in such a case can be repaired, he is the man to repair them. If I should lament any of his acts, it is only when they appear to me to have no resemblance to acts of his. But let him not have a confidence in himself, which no human abilities can warrant. His abilities are fully equal (and that is to say much for any man) to those that are opposed to him. But if we look to him as our security against the consequences of a regicide peace, let us be assured, that a regicide peace and a constitutional ministry are terms that will not agree. With a regicide peace the king cannot long have a minister to serve him, nor the minister a king to serve. If the Great Disposer, in reward of the royal and the private virtues of our sovereign, should call him from the calamitous spectacles, which will attend a state of amity with Regicide, his successor will surely see them, unless the same Providence greatly anticipates the course of nature. Thinking thus, (and not, as I conceive, on light grounds) I dare not flatter the reigning sovereign, nor any minister he has or can have, nor his successor apparent, nor any of those who may be called to serve him, with what appears to me a false state of their situation. We cannot have them and that peace together.

‘I do not forget that there had been a considerable difference between several of our friends, with my insignificant self, and the great man at the head of ministry, in an early stage of these discussions. But I am sure there was a period in which we agreed better in the danger of a jacobin existence in France. At one time, he and all Europe seemed to feel it. But why am not I converted with so many great powers, and so many great ministers? It is because I am old and slow.—I am in this year, 1796, only where all the powers of Europe were in 1793. I cannot move with this procession of the equinoxes, which is preparing for us the return of some very old, I am afraid no golden æra, or the commencement of some new æra that must be denominated from some new metal. In this crisis I must hold my tongue, or I must speak with freedom. Falshood and delusion are allowed in no case whatever: but, as in the exercise of all the virtues, there is an œconomy of truth.

truth. It is a sort of temperance, by which a man speaks truth with measure that he may speak it the longer. But as the same rules do not hold in all cases—what would be right for you, who may presume on a series of years before you, would have no sense for me, who cannot, without absurdity, calculate on six months of life. What I say, I must say at once. Whatever I write is in it's nature testamentary. It may have the weakneſs, but it has the ſincerity of a dying declaration. For the few days I have to linger here, I am removed completely from the buſy ſcene of the world; but I hold myſelf to be ſtill reſponſible for every thing that I have done whiſt I continued on the place of action. If the raweſt tyro in politicks has been influenced by the authority of my grey hairs, and led by any thing in my ſpeeches, or my writings, to enter into this war, he has a right to call upon me to know why I have changed my opinions, or why, when thoſe I voted with, have adopted better notions, I perſevere in exploded error?

‘ When I ſeem not to acquieſce in the acts of thoſe I reſpect in every degree ſhort of ſuperſtition, I am obliged to give my reaſons fully. I cannot ſet my authority againſt their authority. But to exert reaſon is not to revolt againſt authority. Reaſon and authority do not move in the ſame parallel. That reaſon is an *amicus curiæ* who ſpeaks *de plano*, not *pro tribunali*. It is a friend who makes an uſeful ſuggeſtion to the court, without queſtioning it's juriſdiction. Whiſt he acknowledges it's competence, he promotes it's efficiency. I ſhall purſue the plan I have chalked out in my letters that follow this.’ P. 135.

In his ſecond letter, Mr. Burke conſiders the genius and character of the French revolution, as it regards other nations. He allows that it is a dreadful truth, but it is a truth that cannot be concealed, that in ability, in dexterity, in diſtinctneſs of views, the jacobins are our ſuperiors—

‘ They ſaw the thing right from the very beginning. Whatever were the firſt motives to the war among politicians, they ſaw that it is in it's ſpirit, and for it's objects, a civil war; and as ſuch they purſued it. It is a war between the partizans of the antient, civil, moral, and political order of Europe againſt a ſect of fanatical and ambitious atheiſts which means to change them all. It is not France extending a foreign empire over other nations: it is a ſect aiming at univerſal empire, and beginning with the conqueſt of France. The leaders of that ſect ſecured the centre of Europe; and that ſecured, they knew, that whatever might be the event of battles and ſieges, their cauſe was victorious. Whether it's territory had a little more or a little leſs peeled from it's ſurface, or whether an iſland or two was detached from it's commerce, to them was of little moment. The conqueſt of France was a glorious acquiſition. That once well laid as a baſis of empire, opportunities never

never could be wanting to regain or to replace what had been lost, and dreadfully to avenge themselves on the faction of their adversaries.

‘ They saw it was a civil war. It was their business to persuade their adversaries that it ought to be a foreign war. The jacobins every where set up a cry against the new crusade; and they intrigued with effect in the cabinet, in the field, and in every private society in Europe. Their task was not difficult. The condition of princes, and sometimes of first ministers too, is to be pitied. The creatures of the desk, and the creatures of favour, had no relish for the principles of the manifestoes. They promised no governments, no regiments, no revenues from whence emoluments might arise, by perquisite or by grant. In truth, the tribe of vulgar politicians are the lowest of our species. There is no trade so vile and mechanical as government in their hands. Virtue is not their habit. They are out of themselves in any course of conduct recommended only by conscience and glory. A large, liberal and prospective view of the interests of states passes with them for romance; and the principles that recommend it for the wanderings of a disordered imagination. The calculators compute them out of their senses. The jesters and buffoons shame them out of every thing grand and elevated. Littleness in object and in means, to them appears soundness and sobriety. They think there is nothing worth pursuit, but that which they can handle; which they can measure with a two-foot rule; which they can tell upon ten fingers.

‘ Without the principles of the jacobins, perhaps without any principles at all, they played the game of that faction. There was a beaten road before them. The powers of Europe were armed; France had always appeared dangerous; the war was easily diverted from France as a faction, to France as a state. The princes were easily taught to slide back into their old habitual course of politicks. They were easily led to consider the flames that were consuming France, not as a warning to protect their own buildings, (which were without any party wall, and linked by a contiguity into the edifice of France,) as an happy occasion for pillaging the goods, and for carrying off the materials of their neighbour’s house. Their provident fears were changed into avaricious hopes. They carried on their new designs without seeming to abandon the principles of their old policy. They pretended to seek, or they flattered themselves that they sought, in the accession of new fortresses, and new territories, a defensive security. But the security wanted was against a kind of power, which was not so truly dangerous in its fortresses nor in its territories, as in its spirit and its principles. They aimed, or pretended to aim, at defending themselves against a danger, from which there can be no security in any defensive plan. If armies and fortresses were a defence against jacobinism,

Louis

Louis the Sixteenth would this day reign a powerful monarch over an happy people.

‘ This error obliged them, even in their offensive operations, to adopt a plan of war, against the success of which there was something little short of mathematical demonstration. They refused to take any step which might strike at the heart of affairs. They seemed unwilling to wound the enemy in any vital part. They acted through the whole, as if they really wished the conservation of the jacobin power; as what might be more favourable than the lawful government to the attainment of the petty objects they looked for. They always kept on the circumference; and the wider and remoter the circle was, the more eagerly they chose it as their sphere of action in this centrifugal war. The plan they pursued, in it's nature demanded great length of time. In it's execution, they, who went the nearest way to work, were obliged to cover an incredible extent of country. It left to the enemy every means of destroying this extended line of weakness. Ill success in any part was sure to defeat the effect of the whole. This is true of Austria. It is still more true of England. On this false plan, even good fortune, by further weakening the victor, put him but the further off from his object.

‘ As long as there was any appearance of success, the spirit of aggrandizement, and consequently the spirit of mutual jealousy seized upon all the coalesced powers. Some sought an accession of territory at the expence of France, some at the expence of each other; some at the expence of third parties; and when the vicissitude of disaster took it's turn, they found common distress a treacherous bond of faith and friendship.

‘ The greatest skill conducting the greatest military apparatus has been employed; but it has been worse than uselessly employed, through the false policy of the war. The operations of the field suffered by the errors of the cabinet. If the same spirit continues when peace is made, the peace will fix and perpetuate all the errors of the war; because it will be made upon the same false principle. What has been lost in the field, in the field may be regained. An arrangement of peace in it's nature is a permanent settlement; it is the effect of counsel and deliberation, and not of fortuitous events. If built upon a basis fundamentally erroneous, it can only be retrieved by some of those unforeseen dispositions, which the all-wise but mysterious Governor of the world, sometimes interposes, to snatch nations from ruin. It would not be pious error, but mad and impious presumption for any one to trust in an unknown order of dispensations, in defiance of the rules of prudence, which are formed upon the known march of the ordinary providence of God.’ P. 144.

We have now selected the most material passages from this fanciful production. The author has openly proclaimed the
views

views with which he has published it: he has seized the moment when the minds of his countrymen, after having long been agitated by the calamities of this wide and bloody conflict, were reposeing on the hopes of peace, to sound again the war-whoop of confederacy, and to marshal the princes of the earth again to battle: and this after having declared *that the blood of man should never be shed, but to redeem the blood of man; the rest is vanity, the rest is crime.* But the more frequently that we have been called upon to admire the genius of this singular man, the more reason have we found to distrust the soundness of his judgment, and of the work before us.

‘The earth hath bubbles as the water has,
And *this* is of them.’

Thoughts on the Prospects of a Regicide Peace, in a Series of Letters. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Owen. 1796.

IN reviewing the former work, we have also reviewed this. The reason why this has been ushered into the world without the name and approbation of the author, Mr. Owen has amply detailed in his ‘Appeal to the Candour and Justice of the Nation;’ an appeal, which, in the nature of its assertions, is not a little curious, and which we submit to the perusal of our readers—

‘It would ill become me to make any remarks on my examination before a committee of the house of commons, respecting the author of “Thoughts on the English Government.” My conduct on that occasion could give no just offence to any party, and was spoken of in very favourable terms by Mr. Windham, Mr. Woodford his secretary, and several of their friends. As a mark of their esteem, they promised me a pamphlet which Mr. Burke was then preparing for the press, and which he soon after put into my hands. On giving me the last sheet, with his final corrections, “There,” said he, “that is *your own*—It is but a trivial thing—I do not know that it will pay you for paper and printing.”—I must also do Mr. Burke the justice to acknowledge that he seemed to rejoice at my success; and to shew his desire of farther promoting it, gave me his “Thoughts on a Regicide Peace.” I felt the full force of the favour, and cheerfully took upon me the trouble of dancing backwards and forwards alternately between author and printer, three or four times a day for almost three months, to attend to such a variety of alterations as can be conceived only by those who are acquainted with the whims, the caprice and the eternal versatility of genius. After an interval of six months, the publication having been for that time suspended, and just at the moment that I expected to receive some little return for my fatiguing exertions, I was suddenly called

called upon by the Rev. Dr. King, with a sort of message from Mr. Burke, desiring an account of the former work. I was really shocked at a demand so repugnant to all my ideas of that gentleman's character. I know he has not so short a memory as to forget the terms on which he made me a present of the manuscript. I had made no provision to settle for the profits of a voluntary gift, nor had I kept any account of them. I must also assert, that in order to shew myself not inferior even to Mr. Burke in generosity, I liberally supplied all his friends with copies of the work *gratis*, so that I believe, if an exact account had been kept, it would not appear that I lay under any very weighty obligation. Roused, however, by so strange a demand, I called upon Mr. Windham's secretary to remonstrate on the illiberality, injustice, and unreasonableness of such a claim for what I could not help considering as a present: he replied, "It is very true:—it was meant so:—but Mr. Burke has thought otherwise since."—I then called upon Mr. Nagle, the near relation and confidential friend of Mr. Burke, who had expressed no less surprise on hearing the matter first mentioned by Dr. King, and whose exact words were, "By heavens! Owen conceived the pamphlet to be his *own*; and so did I."—If Mr. Burke's conceptions then should run counter in this instance to the dictates of plain sense, and to the ideas of his own nearest and dearest friends, I hope my character can never be injured by his unaccountable eccentricities. The man, who can write so beautiful a panegyric on royal bounty, would never surely incur the reproach of attempting to retract his own gifts, or even to strip a poor bookseller of the accidental profits of publishing an essay on munificence. He has also, I am persuaded, too much dignity of sentiment to be offended with my bringing forward the present work, on account of its interfering in any sort with his *new* arguments against a peace with a regicide directory. I am in fact promoting his own wishes to cut off all intercourse with regicides; and I rely upon his kind and disinterested recommendation of these *old* thoughts on the subject, which are now presented to the public with the venerable marks, and silver honours of age.' p. i.

The authenticity of the work is not to be doubted. Of his original work Mr. Burke appears to have expunged only what related to the propriety of waging war against opinion.

'But, say some, you force opinion. You can never extirpate opinion without extirpating a whole nation. Nay, by pursuing it, you only increase its partizans. Opinions are things out of human jurisdiction. I have formerly heard this from the mouths of great men, with more surprize than satisfaction. They alledged as a proof of their doctrine, the wars of Charles the Fifth, and some of his successors, against the reformation.

It is so common, though so unreasonable, it is hardly worth remarking,

marking, that no persons pursue more fiercely with criminal process, and with every kind of coercion, the publication of opinions contrary to their own, than those do, who claim in this respect the most unbounded latitude to themselves. If it were not for this inconsistency, then war against opinions might be justified as all others, more or less, according to the reason of the case: for the case judged on by moral prudence, and not by any universal abstract principle of right, is to guide government in this delicate point.

‘ As to the mere matter of extirpation of all kinds of opinions, whether right or wrong, without the extirpation of a people, it is a thing so very common, that would be clouded and obscured rather than illustrated by examples. Every revolution in the predominant opinion made by the force of domestic legal government, by the force of any usurpation, by the force of any conquest, is a proof to the contrary;—and there is no nation which has not experienced those changes. Instances enough may be furnished of people who have enthusiastically, and with force, propagated those opinions, which some time before they resisted with their blood. Rarely have ever great changes in opinion taken place without the application of force, more or less. Like every thing else in human life and human affairs, it is not universally true, that a persecution of opinions lessens or increases the number of their votaries. In finding where it may or may not have gathered these effects, the sagacity of government shines or is disgraced, as well as in the time, the manner, the choice of the opinions on which it ought to use or forbear the sword of domestick or of foreign justice. But it is a false maxim, that opinions ought to be indifferent to us, either as men or as a state. Opinion is the rudder of human action; and as the opinion is wise or foolish, vicious or moral, the cause of action is noxious or salutary. It has even been the great primary object of speculative and doctrinal philosophy to regulate opinion. It is the great object of political philosophy to promote that which is sound; and to extirpate what is mischievous, and which directly tends to render men bad citizens in the community, and mischievous neighbours out of it. Opinions are of infinite consequence. They make the manners—in fact, they make the laws: they make the legislator. They are, therefore, of all things, those to which provident government ought to look most to in their beginnings. After a time they may look to them in vain. When, therefore, I am told that a war is a war of opinions, I am told that it is the most important of all wars.

‘ Here I must not be told that this would lead to eternal war and persecution. It would certainly, if we argued like metaphysicians run mad, who do not conceive prudence, the queen of virtues, to be any virtue at all,—and would either throw the bridle on the neck of headlong nature, or tie it up for ever to the post. No sophistry—

no chicanery here. Government is not to refine men out of innocent and moral liberty by forced inferences, drawn by a torturing logic ; or to suffer them to go down hill the highway that leads directly to every crime and every vice.

‘ Without entering much into the comparison of the two cases, (that of this war and that of Charles the Fifth against the reformation) which holds very ill, I shall only beg leave to remark, that theological opinions as such, whether sound or erroneous, do not go directly to the well being of social, of civil, or of political society. But as long as opinion is the very ground and pillar of government, and the main spring of human action, there are opinions which directly affect these very things. An opinion, that it is a man's duty to take from me my goods, and to kill me if I resist him. An opinion, that he has a right, at his will, to pull down the government by which I am protected in that life and property, and to place it in the hands of the enemies of both. These it is very extraordinary to hear compared to the theological dogmas concerning grace and justification—and the nature and essence of the sacrament and other pious opinions on the one side or on the other—which left human society altogether, or nearly as it was. They did not preach vices or crimes. The parties disputed on the best means of promoting virtue, religion and morals. Whether any collateral points relative to these questions or other circumstances of a more political nature mingled with them, might or might not justify a war, is a matter of historical criticism, with which, at this day, we are little concerned. But in the case before us, I must declare, that the doctrine and discipline of this sect is one of the most alarming circumstances relating to it, and the attempt to compare them with the opinions of school theologicians, is a thing in itself highly alarming. I know that when men possess the best principles, the passions lead them to act in opposition to them. But when the moral principles are formed systematically to play into the hand of the passions ; when that which is to correct vice and to restrain violence, is by an infernal doctrine, daringly avowed, carefully propagated, enthusiastically held, and practically followed, I shall think myself treated like a child, when I hear this compared to a controversy in the schools. When I see a great country, with all its resources, possessed by this sect, and turned to its purposes, I must be worse than a child to conceive it a thing indifferent to me. When this great country is so near me, and otherwise so situated, that except through its territory, I can hardly have a communication with any other, the state of moral and political opinion, and moral and political discipline in that country, becomes of still greater importance to me. When robbers, assassins, and rebels, are not only debauched, but indoctrinated regularly, by a course of inverted education, into murder, insurrection, and the violation of all property, I hold, that this, instead of excusing, or palliating their offences, inspires

inspires a peculiar venom into every evil act they do ; and that all such universities of crimes, and all such professors of robbery, are in a perpetual state of hostility with mankind.' P. 63.

The comments of Mr. Burke on the negotiations of Messrs. Wickham and Hammond, and the comparative view of our resources during the reigns of William and Anne, with those of the present æra, are the principal omissions in this work ; in most other respects the pamphlets are nearly literal copies of each other ; though the last may want the stamp of the author's image to make it pass current.

Utrum Horum? The Government ; or, the Country? by D. O'Bryen. 8vo. 2s. Debrett. 1796.

WHILE the impressive eloquence of Mr. Burke rapidly describes the dangers that he anticipates from a regicide peace, the pen of Mr. O'Bryen is laboriously occupied to demonstrate that the duration of the war is certain ruin. In this attempt he cannot be accused of fascinating his readers by those vivid colourings of language, those brilliant flashes of fancy, which, in the former writer, allure our admiration against our better judgment. Dull and heavy, the author of *Utrum Horum* plods along the beaten road, without collecting a single flower to beguile the tedious way. A certain pert brevity, indeed, quickens his pace, when he introduces himself to his readers. It was he who in 1786 announced to the public the ever-memorable axiom, that '*it is the duty of Great Britain to consider any accession of strength or territory, which France may obtain in any part of the world, as so much taken from her own power.*' It was he who was favoured with the perusal of the first pamphlet written by Mr. Burke on the French revolution, *as soon as any man, at this time, in the land of the living.* It was he, who, under the impression, *that the difference between those two GREAT men, Mr. Burke and Mr. Sheridan, would be a GREAT evil to the country, and to their own party,* the second night after the original contest in the House of Commons, brought them both together, and carried them to Mr. Fox and the Duke of Portland according to a previous arrangement : and it was to him that Brissot declared his sentiments at Paris on the recall of the English ambassador.

The object of the pamphlet, we are, however, assured by the author is, *first*, to show that the duration of the war is ruin ; and that peace alone can save us ;—*second*, that the best peace which can be rationally expected from the present ministry would be a greater calamity than the continuance of the war ; *that is to say, than ruin* ;—*third*, that the true policy and best hope of the country will be, *first*, in a grand act of

JUSTICE; and *finally*, in a COURAGE worthy of its ancient character.

1st. To convince us that peace would save us, Mr. O'Bryen quotes his own words, from a very able pamphlet written by himself, to prove that the commercial treaty negotiated with France, by lord Auckland, was highly detrimental to this country. *Great Britain ought to consider every accession of territory that France may obtain as so much taken from her own power*; and, therefore, he immediately concludes that the only mode to save us from destruction, is to sign a peace which would leave our enemy in possession of all her conquests in the Netherlands, in Italy, and in Germany.

2d. To show that the best peace that can rationally be expected from the present ministry would be a greater calamity than the continuance of the war, he enumerates the virtues of the republic, her sincerity in her negotiations, her fidelity to her treaties, and the splendid success which has accompanied her enterprises; and then adds, that if, through Mr. Pitt, we obtain such an ally, we must be worse than undone.

On the JUSTICE and COURAGE which he comprises under his *third, first, and final* division, he is totally silent; he has probably omitted them in this first edition, that, in a second, he may gratify with them the avidity of his readers. On our parts we cannot conceal from him that we regard his omissions as the best part of his work; and we doubt not that our readers will be of the same opinion, when we present them with a specimen of the style in which he has clothed those arguments which he unfortunately has not omitted.

Never did man labour more to preserve the peace of two countries, than Mr. Chauvelin;—but what success could he have with men who were resolved not to be satisfied? The conduct of Mr. Chauvelin and Lord Grenville in their epistolary intercourse is an epitome of the two governments. On the one side appear an eagerness to know the grievance, and an anxiety to explain it. On the other a sulky suppression of the cause of complaint, and a morose boorish predetermination not to be content. The one writes with a vivacity which is conscious of no offence, and an impatience for shaking hands: the other with a churlish snarling growl, which fancies some interest in leaving the cause of dispute ambiguous, and a clownish dislike to any reconciliation. At length Mr. Chauvelin is turned out of the country, on account of an event, which, though calculated to move the sorrow of every tender breast, was yet no object of cognizance for a British statesman.

No stranger to the blood of the unhappy king of France could have lamented his fate more than the author of these sheets—but I shall for ever deny that England had any pretence of right to re-

venge his death, or interfere in any shape in the domestic concerns of his country. The ministry dismissed Mr. Chauvelin however immediately upon the king's death—which death, in my conscience, I believe they hastened and wished.

‘ In every view of their conduct upon this occasion, this inference forces itself. They considered the French convention either as men of sense and humanity ;—as a band of blood thirsty ruffians, or as a mixture of both. Since the beginning of the world there was never heard such a torrent of abuse as the ministry loaded France with from the beginning of the sessions of parliament on the 13th of December 1792 to the king's death on the 21st of January after. Could they think that such a stile was the most likely to influence men of humanity and sense, or that it was the best mode to mollify the tygers of September ?

‘ Survey the conduct of the English opposition upon this melancholy business.

‘ A day was set apart on purpose in the House of Commons with a view to avert if possible the dreadful danger of this unhappy prince. Mr. Fox (followed in the same stile by all the leading men on that side of the house) gave reasoned opinions, that it was for the honour and interest of France, to spare the king's life, expressing those sentiments with exquisite feeling, but with perfect moderation. If I had no personal knowledge of those speakers—If I did not well know how richly they are stored with the milk of human kindness, their conduct upon that day had left no doubt of their ardent wish to rescue the unhappy victim—Mr. Pitt on the contrary vented himself against the convention and the country, in a strain of the most loud, coarse, scurrilous and vehement invective that tongue ever uttered.

Do I wrong the gentleman ? My eyes saw him. My ears heard him, and my understanding put this question. Can this man be in earnest to save the devoted king ? I believe he was quite in earnest for his own purpose, namely, to whet the rancour of a goodly people, (who will I hope never shed the blood of man for evil speculations) against France, which he had long meditated to attack, and of which meditation, the recal of lord Gower was, as Brissot asserted, but too decisive an indication.’ p. 47.

The author of *Utrum Horum* is, however, anxious to vindicate himself from any suspicion that interested motives should have induced him to describe the existence of the government or *administration* as incompatible with the existence of the country.

‘ It is not, God knows, from anxiety that Mr. Fox should be minister, either on his account or from views personal to myself, that I have taken the trouble of composing this work. If I were of a corrupt nature, little as I am, the channel had been long ago open to me and upon more than one occasion. In his day of difficulty

scanty or danger I believe I should be found as near to Mr. Fox and cling as close to him, as any person born of a woman;—but my disposition does not particularly lead me to cultivate any body in the hour of success. I suspect that I should not be the first to present myself upon his kissing the king's hand—no evil to the man I love best, for in such a case he would be sure of a crowded levee. My true motive is the salvation of my country, and without dwelling longer upon malice which perhaps should be treated only with contempt and scorn—I proceed.

‘The best chance then of real peace with France is surely from this description of minister.

‘From a minister, who, bred in the principles of the grand alliance and nurtured in a fear of French power, had surveyed the revolution in France as the harbinger of peace to England and to Europe—who, burning with the ardour of a patriot for the freedom of his own country, beheld the rising liberty of other nations with the rapture of a philosopher—who was the first public man in Europe to hail the downfall of the atrocious despotism of the court of Versailles—who lamented as heartily as the enemies of the French revolution rejoiced, in the crimes and cruelties which were not so much produced by that event, as by the unprincipled combination formed against it by foreign tyrants—who, gifted with an understanding like intuition to see in the right season the wisdom or folly of state measures, had warned his country of the fatal policy of its ministers towards France, and opposed this destructive war in all its stages, with invincible constancy and courage; though deserted by those who were nearest his heart, and supported only by a few firm associates, whose merit is increased by the smallness of their numbers, and the general delirium which the administration had so artfully excited—a man whose morals prevent him from exulting at the misfortunes of others, and whose manners secure him from the necessity of humiliation.—Who never insulted France in the period of her depression and has nothing to disavow or expiate in the hour of her triumph—who has not left mankind in the dark about his object for four fatal years of unexampled carnage—and finally, whose distinguishing character being directness and plain dealing, appears the properest man to negotiate with a people who affect to substitute candour for the finesse and fallacy of courts!’ p. 100.

With the pacific wishes of the author we heartily concur, although we are totally indifferent by whom they are gratified; but if the negotiation should be intrusted to him by a new administration, as a recompense for his zeal,—we are very much afraid, from the proof of his happy obscurity before us, that it would be some months before the French directory, ample as their capacities may be, would be able to penetrate the object of his mission.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICAL.

Dissertation on First Principles of Government. To which is added, the genuine Speech, translated, and delivered at the Tribune of the French Convention, July 7, 1795. By Thomas Paine, Author of Common Sense, Rights of Man, Age of Reason, &c. 8vo. 1s. Griffiths. 1795.

THE name of Thomas Paine, if it be not likely to descend to posterity, possesses at least as great a portion of contemporary notice, as could fall to the lot of any public man; for party spirit, whether it operate in the channel of persecution or applause, or in both at the same time, must be allowed to confer the importance of notoriety on the personal objects of its idolatry or hatred.

It is unnecessary for us to enter into an investigation of Mr. Paine's political doctrines; of the character of his writings we have long formed our opinion; we consider them as a string of epigrams on the subject of government, in many of which there is some point and some truth, but which have no claim to the coherence of system, or the credit of candour.

The present dissertation contains nothing new on Mr. Paine's favourite theme of democracy; and is disgraced by an abuse of the monarchical and aristocratical institutions, so low and virulent, that the champions of rational liberty must exclaim,

‘Non tali auxilio, nec defensoribus istis—’

Rights of the People; or, Reasons for a Regicide Peace. Containing an Investigation of the Rise and Progress of Despotism; the ancient and present State of France; State of Europe, and of England in particular; Calculation of the Durability of the Funding System; and the absolute Necessity of an immediate Peace upon any Terms. With a few anticipating Strictures upon Mr. Burke's long promised Letters against a Regicide Peace. By William Williams, of Gray's-Inn, Student at Law. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Jordan. 1796.

In this pamphlet, Mr. Burke is censured as a political apostate, a declamatory rhapsodist. The first accusation may certainly be supported with very moderate talents; and the author's own style does not seem to confer on him the least right of making the other. Alluding to Mr. Burke, he says—

‘From an attentive perusal of the speeches and writings of this extraordinary character, we see at once the causes of his errors, incoherencies, and absurdities. Possessed of the sublimest imagination, he has not learned to check the poetic fire, but gives it the most unbounded scope. As age approaches our habits gather strength,

strength, and if in early youth we have accustomed ourselves to deviate but a little from the exact line of reason, it is well if, when time has passed his ploughshare over our foreheads, we find not that we have wandered to the uttermost verge of an extreme. It is thus with him. He always sacrificed too much at the shrine of elegance, and suffered flowery declamation to encroach upon sound argument, 'till at length it has usurped the whole sovereignty. He abounds in beautiful metaphors; his sportive fancy scatters her rich luxuriance over the enamelled meads of fairy fiction; but amidst this bower of sweets, I search in vain for the majestic oak of unsophisticated logic.' p. iii.

As far as Mr. Burke is concerned, his defender Mr. Townshend, and his opponent Mr. Williams, are truly '*par nobile studentium.*' Gray's Inn, an *alma mater* of the law, may boast of her two rising geniuses: for, in proportion as the celebrated character in question has been exalted by the encomiums of the one, it is likely to be depressed by the philippics of the other.

Thoughts on the Prospect of a Regicide War, in a Letter to the Right Hon. Edmund Burke. 8vo. 6d. Smeeton. 1796.

Venienti occurrere morbo, is this author's motto. Finding that all the prescriptions of Mr. Burke's antagonists have been ineffectual in curing that gentleman of his political disorder, he wishes to prevent a relapse, of which there have been some alarming symptoms. In other words, Mr. Burke having announced a pamphlet, called '*Thoughts on the Prospect of a Regicide Peace,*' this author hopes he may be able to dissuade him from a design so fatal to the peace of Europe. For this purpose he endeavours to prove, that, had the war never been begun, the French would soon have discovered that they had only changed monarchy for anarchy, and that, after a fruitless experiment of change, they would have settled in a sober sense of the benefits of hereditary though not indefeasible succession, which would have been secured by laws, binding both on king and people. He asserts that the less blood and money is spent in support of a throne, beyond what decent splendour requires of the last, the more will the attachment of the multitude be; and he cautions Mr. Burke, lest, in advancing his arguments why a peace at present would be a *regicide* one, he inadvertently point out the means to make it such.—We know not that it is quite fair to suppose what Mr. Burke means to advance in his next pamphlet: but it is at least paying him a great compliment, to suppose him the prime director of public opinion. If our ministry, however, are seriously disposed to confer the blessings of peace on their country, what Mr. Burke may say will have but little weight. It is the combination of ministerial influence and patronage, which makes falsehood plausible, and sophistry delusive.

A general Reply to the several Answerers, &c. of a Letter written to a Noble Lord. By the Right Honourable Edmund Burke. 8vo. 2s. Allen and West. 1796.

On looking merely at the title-page, we are at a loss to determine who is the author. A full stop is put after the word *Lord*; and consequently the present publication ought to be attributed to the right honourable Edmund Burke. But it is of little consequence who the author is; the style determines it to come from one of the Burkian school; and if not from the hand of the master, the probability is, that the disciple wrote under his auspices. The times are now altered; the king's speech has shown the folly of a great part of Mr. Burke's assertions: and the critical state of the nation has taken away all relish for his old declamation. This general reply will probably end the contest, as far as Mr. Burke is concerned. No one will attempt a rejoinder; nor is there indeed any thing in the pamphlet, which requires further animadversion. The old topics are brought forward: Mr. Burke is every where vindicated, and even for his consistency. His opponents are not quite so much abused as heretofore: and the curtain being now let fall, we heartily wish Mr. Burke a good night, and a long enjoyment of his pension.

Reform or Revolution, in a Letter, to a Bishop: with an Appendix addressed to the People of England. By W. Ruffel. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman. 1796.

There is a whimsical mixture of good sense and extravagance in this production: it points out many grievances in the ecclesiastical and political state of the country with considerable acuteness; but the reader will be often offended by a want of seriousness in the language and manner of the observations. The author states himself to have been a clergyman, and that he has now thrown off his gown;—he talks of the ‘*anonymous secrecy*’ and ‘*magisterial language*’ of reviewers, and observes that they will most probably call his book, ‘*the contemptible production of a contemptible writer, whose arrogance is such as to suppose that national revolution will take place in consequence of his professional resignation.*’

With whatever idle, nonsensical, or even angry remarks, any pamphleteer may chuse to anticipate the critical reception of his labours, we shall not feel ourselves at all ruffled. Authors should remember, that it is at best but a piece of vulgar affectation to cry ‘*stinking fish*,’—and that, in point of fact, invectives against critics and reviewers have in general proceeded from the ungentlemanly and revengeful spleen of bad writers.

A Letter to Thomas Paine; in Reply to his Decline and Fall of the English System of Finance. By Daniel Wakefield. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1796.

Daniel Wakefield takes Thomas Paine to task for some assertions
on

on our funds. The ratio on the progressive increase of the national expenses, he shows to be inaccurate : and indeed the least thought on the subject must teach any man, that very great accuracy was not intended, nor could be expected. Thomas Paine calculates the debt produced by the war of 1688, ending in 1697, to be twenty-one millions and an half. Daniel Wakefield says, ' it really amounted to 21,515,743l.' A little farther our author exults at finding out an error of five millions. We have already expressed our opinion of Paine's ratio, of which we know no other good, than that it has afforded our author probably some amusement in correcting it.

Some obvious errors in Paine's statement of our paper money take up the remaining part, or little more than half of the book ; and our author exults with just as much reason on the supposed prosperity of our finances, as his antagonist did on his assumed position of their excessive depression. Both writers are building castles in the air.

Remarks on the present Times, exhibiting the Causes of the high Price of Provisions, and Propositions for their Reduction, being an Introduction to Hints and Observations on Agriculture. By James M'Phail. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1795.

Mr. M'Phail, as this tract evinces, has employed himself on other subjects besides raising cucumbers. Amid a variety of topics, some of which are shrewdly handled, we have the following observations on the leading article of the title—

' The increase of money, or the signs of it, does not only operate on the price of provisions, by the diminution of its own value, but by enabling more people to purchase, and of course consume them, one way or other, which must unavoidably increase their scarcity, and still add more to their price. Twenty rich families will consume at least twelve times as much meat, butter, soap, and candles, as twenty poor families consisting of the same number ; and the prices of all these must certainly rise in proportion to the demand. In many countries of Europe this effect of the increase of wealth is visible at this time ; and in none more than in Great Britain.

' The consumption of every thing is amazingly increased from the increase of wealth, not only in the metropolis, but in every part of the kingdom. Throughout all ranks and conditions of men, the manner of living is no less amazingly altered. The merchant, who formerly thought himself fortunate if in the course of thirty or forty years, by large trade, and strict œconomy, he amassed together twenty or thirty thousand pounds, now acquires in less than half that time, double that sum, or breaks for a greater ; and all that time vies with the first of our nobility in his houses, table, furniture, and equipage. In the metropolis, and other large cities

and towns, the shop-keeper, who used to be as well contented with one dish of meat, one fire, &c. has now three or four times as many : his wife has her card parties, and must be in the present fashion, with no stays, the petticoat seems pinned to the cravat, and the arms come out at the pocket holes ;—she must go to the play-house in winter, the watering places in summer, and Astley's amphitheatre in autumn : and his journeyman climbs from the shop to the front boxes of the play-house. In his shop is seldom a servant woman to be seen, but several well-powdered gentlemen, to serve with all the politeness required by the first female characters. The lowest manufacturer, and meanest mechanic, will touch nothing but the very best pieces of meat, and the finest white bread ; and if they cannot obtain this, they think they have a right to seek redress of grievances, by a reform in parliament. To this catalogue, however, it is well for the country there are many exceptions.

‘ Since then the value of money is greatly decreased by its quantity ; and the consumption of provisions of all kinds very much increased by universal luxury ; and the supplies we used to receive from poorer countries, now also grown rich, more hard to be come at ; the present exorbitant prices of all the necessaries of life can be no wonder.

‘ From what I have advanced, the high price of provisions may be easily accounted for, without having recourse to forestallers, regraters, monopolizers, and farmers keeping back their produce till they can get a high price for it, with all the other causes which are assigned by essay and newspaper writers, and adopted by many of their readers. How far any of these, or all of them, have locally, collaterally, or accidentally, contributed to augment the price of provisions, I pretend not to determine ; nor perhaps is it of much importance to inquire, because, whatever may have been their effects, I am persuaded they could have had none at all, had they not been helped by the first and great cause, that is, the increase of riches. Does it, therefore, answer any great purpose, to search out for the causes of the present high price of provisions from facts, whose operations are not certain, and reasons at best but speculative ; when it is sufficiently proved from these two great principles, the increase of riches, and the increase of taxes. By this, however, I would by no means wish to discourage government, and the legislature from inquiring into abuses, of which, doubtless, there are many ; and applying to them as speedy and efficacious remedies as possible, to redress this evil ; much less to disapprove the wise measures they have already taken : but I would wish to lessen the unmeasurable expectations formed by many of their success, and the indignation consequent from their disappointment.’ P. 97.

The tables at the end of this pamphlet are in many ways useful.

A short View of the Inconveniencies of War; with some Observations on the Expediency of Peace; in a Letter to a Friend. 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1796.

The intention of the author of this pamphlet is to show the futility of all continental wars in general, and of the present in particular. He is of opinion that it was originally unnecessary, and that whatever the original grounds of the contest with France might be,—whether the supposed security of the allies, or the conquest of France,—it could not, in the first instance, be more necessary than peace now is to the parties concerned. We do not find many remarks that are new or striking in what he advances: but the whole is written dispassionately, and may have its effect now that the din of war has partly lost its charms.

A Retrospect; illustrating the Necessity of an immediate Peace with the Republic of France. 8vo. 1s. Crosby. 1796.

The usual arguments in favour of peace are brought together here, but rather with too much warmth and turgidity of style. The author means well, but wants that moderation which alone can give force and perspicuity to arguments, however well founded. In his last words, which may serve as a specimen of his style, he probably meant to go off with a climax—

‘Hesitate not another moment to negotiate liberally and unequivocally with the republic of France, or, I solemnly declare before God—I see no peace for Israel!!!’ p. 28.

The American Crisis, and a Letter to Sir Guy Carleton, on the Murder of Captain Huddy, and the intended Retaliation on Captain Asgill, of the Guards. By Thomas Paine, Author of *Common Sense, Rights of Man, Age of Reason, and the Decline and Fall of the English System of Finance.* 8vo. 5s. Boards. Eaton. 1796.

The success of Mr. Paine’s late political writings seems to have held out a prospect of advantage from collecting all papers and letters attributed to him during the American war. We can perceive no other reason for republishing the papers contained in this volume. They may be, perhaps, of some small service to the historian: but, diffused among the public at large, they can serve only to revive those animosities between the English and Americans, which it is the interest of both nations to bury in oblivion.

P O E T I C A L.

The Dog Tax, in Verse. Addressed to the Self-appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer. 4to. 1s. Low. 1796.

Mr. Dent is humourously lashed in these lines as the self-appointed chancellor of the exchequer, who wished to tax the poor cottager’s

ger's dog, which has been rescued by the humanity of the parliament. We should have been better pleased, had the author continued in the humourous vein. His introduction is of considerable promise—

'Whereas evils and dangers both serious and great
Have got to a pitch so alarming of late,
And the hydrophobia has spread far and near,
That the poor don't like water so well as strong beer,
And the rich will drink wine, though so damnably dear;
And the dogs of the cottage so furious are grown,
'They gnaw iron and steel as they would a beef bone.
(Mind—the dogs of the cottage—for those of the court
Only pick chicken bones and nice things of that sort.)
'They bite sheep, pigs, and oxen, to such a degree,
We have barking ragout, and stark mad fricasee.
An alderman fears to eat fish, let me tell ye,
Lest hard roe and soft roe should fight in his belly.
Sheep's head, pluck, and lights, each vile cur so confounds,
That the 'squire can't get vi'tals enough for his hounds.
Now all this amounts to a clear demonstration
That the cur's of the poor are the bane of the nation,
And o'erwhelm us with discord, disease, and starvation.'

P. 5.

A Paraphrase on Gray's Elegy, written on the unfortunate Catastrophe of the late Mr. Henry Weston, who was executed for Forgery before Newgate, July 6, 1796. By a Gentleman. 4to. 2s. Tiffin. 1796.

'All you who visit the unhonour'd dead
In contemplation of their future state;
In pity censure not the lives they led,
Which brought them to an ignominious fate.' P. 13.

This paraphrase, the author informs us, was written without an intention of being published; but he was prevailed upon, at the request of several of his friends, to offer it to the world. The specimen above will show the judgment of those friends; and the line in *Italics*, the author's intention, which was to palliate offences for which no excuse can be offered. The effect of this work would, therefore, be of the *immoral* kind, if the poetry had any attractions. There was nothing in Weston's case to claim more than ordinary pity. He was young, and his manners might have been those of a gentleman: but his crimes were those of deliberation. He had long been in the practice of defrauding others, with the most unfeeling cunning and caution; and the *life he led* deserved the severest censure.

The State of the Poll: an eccentric Poem. 12mo. 1s. Lowndes.
1796.

This poem was written during the general election in 1790. It lashes gently and good-naturedly the practice usual on such occasions: the measure is Hudibrastic, and the lines flowing and easy. By far the best part is the sketch of modern characters, in the introduction, of which the following is no unpleasant specimen—

‘ Here must I stop too, by the way,
A little tribute just to pay,
(—With polish’d manners in compliance)
To those who’ve caus’d the gymnastic science
To be promulg’d and understood,
With such great pains, for our great good.
Who have with merited applause,
So well arrang’d the boxing laws;
And, to the credit of the age,
Have ascertain’d, with reasons sage,
What share of honor shall be due
For one black eye, and what for two:
What shall be deem’d a knock-down blow,
And what shall not be deemed so;
And then, how many of those blows
A man of “bottom”—on his nose,
And eyes, and guts, shou’d bear, e’er he
Requies the palm of victory.
For this are great encomiums due:
But for the good that may accrue,
From giving treats, that ne’er are hiss’d,
Of fine dexterity of fist;
From teaching men so bold t’ appear
As not the stroke of death to fear:
(That is, to stare devoid of dread
While one man strikes another dead!)
From teaching them,—if so they’re bent
Also to profit by th’ event:
From learning ruffians while they fight
To be exceedingly polite:
So that each one shall thank his foe,
Whene’er he gets a handsome blow:
(—Who too, are prodigies indeed,
For they can write tho’ they can’t read!)
More panegyric far, I know,
Is due than I can e’er bestow.
Nor e’er shall pugilists forget,
How much they are in Tarleton’s debt.’ p. 16.

An Epistle in Verse to the Rev. Dr. Randolph, English Preceptor to H. R. H. the Princess of Wales, occasioned by the Publication of the Correspondence between the Earl and Countess of Jersey, and the Doctor, upon the Subject of some Letters belonging to H. R. H. the Princess of Wales. 8vo. 1s. Parsons. 1796.

The information we could not find in *dignified* prose, is not to be expected in burlesque verse, the object of which seems to be an attack on Dr. Randolph's style, and is conducted with some degree of humour. The poet concludes thus—

‘ I cease, my Randolph ; oh, forgive the Muse,
Her plume yet fragrant with celestial dews,
Forgive her fears, her serious passing strain,
She n’er was school’d to murmur or complain.
For wisdom taught her, e’en from earliest youth,
‘To feel, with you, this great unalter’d truth ;
“ That oft a nation’s fondest hope is crost,
And that—a packet may be book’d, and lost.” P. 25.

A Select Collection of Epigrams. Many of them Original. By Thomas Clio Rickman, Author of the Evening Walk, Fallen Cottage, &c. &c. 12mo. 2s. Boards. Walker. 1796.

This is at least a *recent* collection of epigrams, and may be an agreeable companion ‘ during the walk, the ride, the sail, and various lounge,’ which form the extent of the collector’s pretensions. From the many allusions to matrimonial infidelity, however, he cannot expect that it will be a favourite in the polite circles.

R E L I G I O U S.

A Sermon on the Argument from Prophecy, in which is proposed a new Interpretation of Daniel’s Prophecy of Seventy Weeks. Preached in the Chapel of Trinity College, Dublin. By George Miller, B. D. Fellow of Trinity College. 4to. 2s. Watson, Dublin. 1794.

The sum of Mr. Miller’s interpretation is comprised in the following extract—

‘ Of this noble prophecy, which the Jewish historian considered as an irrefragable proof of the prescience and providence of God, various interpretations have been proposed, several of them corresponding nearly with the events, but none intirely free from objections. I shall therefore propose a new one which appears to me to be both accurate and consistent. This passage of Daniel in my opinion contains two predictions, the one relating to the time when the great sacrifice of Christ should be offered, the other to the period during which the new covenant of the Gospel should be more particularly preached amongst the Jews. The interval marked in the former consisted of sixty nine weeks, that is according to the

the declared language of prophecy of four hundred and eighty three years; and the period described in the latter of one week or seven years. Though, as I shall undertake to prove, these two periods were not successive, the last week partly coinciding with the sixty-ninth in the other prophecy, yet as this week had a distinct beginning and termination and was marked out for a different purpose, they are collectively described in the general introduction to both prophecies as seventy weeks. "Seventy weeks are determined (or marked out) upon thy people, and upon thy holy city, to finish the transgression, and to make an end of sins, and to make reconciliation for iniquity, and to bring in everlasting righteousness, and to anoint the most holy." In the two following verses are contained the former of those predictions which I have already mentioned, namely, that which relates to the time of the death of Christ. "Know therefore and understand, that from the going forth of the commandment to restore and to build Jerusalem, unto the Messiah the prince, shall be seven weeks, and threescore and two weeks the street shall be built again, and the wall, even in troublous times. And after threescore and two weeks shall Messiah be cut off, but not for himself: and the people of the prince that shall come, shall destroy the city, and the sanctuary, and the end thereof shall be with a flood, and unto the end of the war desolations are determined." Daniel was informed that at the end of seven weeks and three-score and two weeks, that is at the end of sixty-nine weeks, from the time of the commandment to rebuild Jerusalem the Messiah should be cut off. This period has in a computation already given to the public, been justly computed from the twentieth year of Artaxerxes, when Nehemiah informs us he was sent by the king to build the city of his father's sepulchres. From this æra to the year in which Christ died, are exactly sixty-nine weeks of Chaldean years, each consisting of three hundred and sixty days, and that such years should be used in this computation, is evident from other parts of the scriptures. In the history of the deluge, five months are mentioned as equivalent to one hundred and fifty days, and in the Revelation of St. John twelve hundred and sixty days are reckoned, equivalent to three years and a half, or to forty-two months. It appears therefore, that the year according to the prophetic computation of time consisted of 360 days, or twelve months each containing thirty days. Concerning this part of the prophecy there is therefore no difficulty. The last verse contains as I conceive the other prediction of the time during which the Gospel should be preached to the Jews. "And he shall confirm the covenant with many for one week: and in the midst of the week he shall cause the sacrifice and the oblation to cease, and for the overspreading of abominations he shall make it desolate, even until the consummation, and that determined shall be poured upon the desolate." That this week cannot be considered as a continuation

of the sixty nine weeks mentioned in the former part of the prophecy, appears from the following circumstance. The period of those sixty-nine weeks we are informed was to be the death of the Messiah, but in the middle of this seventieth week we are told the sacrifice and oblation were to cease, that is, Christ by his one oblation of himself once offered was virtually to put an end to all the sacrifices and oblations of the Jewish law. The same great event therefore, which should terminate the former computation of sixty-nine weeks, was to mark the middle of the seventieth, and for the beginning of this last week we must go backward one half week or three years and a half. But if we reckon three years and a half backward from the death of Christ, we shall, according to the most approved accounts, come to the beginning of his public ministry; and if we reckon forward from the same event three years and a half, we shall reach the time when the apostles dispersed themselves from Judæa into various parts of the world. Here then is one compleat prophetic week, commencing with the ministry of Christ, and terminating with the final dispersion of his apostles, during which the new covenant of Christianity was confirmed with many, and in the midst of the week the death of Christ caused the sacrifice and the oblation of the Jewish law, which of themselves had not any power to take away sins, and were only figurative of that great sacrifice, to cease. This seems to be the natural meaning of the passage in our common translation, but if the original words be literally translated, the interpretation which I have given will be still more directly authorized. The literal translation is not "he shall confirm the covenant with many for one week, and in the midst of the week he shall cause the sacrifice and the oblation to cease," but "a week shall establish or make a covenant with many, and the midst of the week shall cause the sacrifice and the oblation to cease:" which words expressly point out the period during which the new covenant should be made with the inhabitants of Judæa, and mark the time of that period by the mention of the great event which should happen in the middle of it.

'Thus interpreted, the whole prophecy appears consistent and connected.' P. 15.

However satisfactory this solution may appear to its author, we must confess it to be such as we cannot acquiesce in. Our readers who have already considered the subject, are enabled by this extract to judge for themselves.

A Sermon preached at the Meeting-house in the Old Jewry, on the 28th of June, 1795, upon Occasion of the Death of the Rev. Roger Flexman, D. D. who departed this Life on the 14th Day of the same Month, in the 83th Year of his Age. By Abraham Rees, D. D. F. R. S. Published by Request of the Family. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1795.

In this sermon we have a rational inquiry into the nature of that

passion which may be termed the fear of death, and many excellent observations on the duty of regulating it upon Christian principles. A just tribute is paid to the memory of Dr. Flexman, who is described as a person of considerable mental talents and literary acquirements, and as the compiler and editor of various useful works. He was ordained a pastor so early as 1730, and officiated till 1783 regularly, and even afterwards occasionally. He was a strenuous advocate for the pre-existent dignity of Christ, and the personality of the Holy Spirit. He maintained the essential distinction between the soul and body, and the liberty of the human will, in opposition to Materialists and Necessarians.--Appended to this account, is a list of his original publications; among his compilations is the index to the 8th, 9th, 10th, and 11th volumes of the Journals of the house of commons, for which he received the sum of 3000*l*.

A Sermon preached at the Assizes holden at Wisbech, before Edward Gwillim, Esq. Chief Justice of the Isle of Ely, the 28th of July, 1796. By James Nasmyth, M. A. Rector of Leverington. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1796.

From Exodus xx. v. 7, Mr. Nasmyth inculcates the high obligation of an oath, and the necessity of religious impressions in the administration of justice. The discourse is short, and rather superficial, and adds but little to our stock of printed sermons, although it may have been acceptable in the delivery, and calculated for the occasion.

The Obligations of Christians to support a Conversation becoming the Gospel. A Sermon, preached to a Congregation of Protestant Dissenters in Hull, February 3, 1795, on Occasion of their forming themselves into a Christian Society, under the pastoral Care of the Rev. William Pendered. By Thomas Langdon. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1795.

This sermon contains a superficial though candid review of the mutual obligations of pastors and people, expressed in an unaffected and earnest style, and is printed, we are told, at the earnest request of those to whom it was preached. The author chiefly insists on the duty of Christians to attend the ministry of those whom they elect their religious instructors,—to avoid insisting on unscriptural terms of communion, and on a harsh and rigorous discipline, contrary to the genius of the gospel. He exhorts them to let their behaviour to their fellow Christians of other societies be as becometh the gospel, and to regulate their conduct in their respective families by the same rule. These subjects, we think, he might have enlarged upon with considerable advantage, had not (p. 26) his *time* ‘been nearly elapsed.’ We did not know that discourses of this or any kind were regulated by a certain *time*.

A Preservative against the Infidelity and Uncharitableness of the Eighteenth Century: or, Testimonies in Behalf of Christian Candour and Unanimity, by Divines of the Church of England, of the Kirk of Scotland, and among the Protestant Dissenters. To which is prefixed, an Essay on the Right of Private Judgment in Matters of Religion. The Whole being a Sequel to "The Sketch of the Denominations of the Christian World." By John Evans, A. M. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Symonds. 1796.

A priori, one would suppose there could not be a greater solecism than to imagine that any man, or number of men, should claim to themselves the right of thinking for others; and, consequently, that it ever could be requisite to prove the reverse. But such doth experience evince to be the fact, that, often as the proof has been repeated, and extensively as it is seen to be admitted, no position is less cordially acquiesced in. The introductory essay in this point of view is far from being unseasonable; and the testimonies of which this Preservative consists, form at once a striking proof of the catholicism of Mr. Evans, as well as of the respective authors.

The Promised Messiah. A Sermon preached at Sion-Chapel, White-chapel, to God's ancient People, the Jews, on Sunday Afternoon, Aug. 28, 1796: with the Prayers and Hymns before and after Sermon. By William Cooper. 8vo. 6d. Jordan. 1796.

William Cooper is an illiterate mechanic, who has taken it into his head that he ought to attempt the conversion of the Jews; and this sermon, we presume, is published as a specimen of his talents for this great work. It contains the texts which are prophetic of the appearance of our Saviour, jumbled together with much pious exhortation, but without any connection with profane history, or any assistance from arguments that are likely to weigh against the prejudices of the modern Jews. The author says he is only twenty years of age, and understands no language but English. He appears to be a well-meaning enthusiast: and as his abilities are not ill suited to persons of his own capacity, he cannot fail of improving the property of Sion-chapel.

D R A M A T I C.

Bannian Day, a Musical Entertainment, in Two Acts, performed at the Theatre Royal, Hay-Market. Written by George Brewer. 8vo. 1s. Longman. 1796.

Although, as dramatic pieces, the greater part of our musical entertainments are scarcely worth the trouble of criticising, yet in the *Bannian Day* we discern a promise of talents which may be safely encouraged. The story is trite, but the characters have considerable merit. *Captain Macgallaher, Batch, and Notice*, are outlines
sketched

sketched with great humour; and there is nothing forced, or very improbable, in the situations. The poetry is mostly of the comic kind, and adapted to the mock *bravura* which was introduced on the English stage by the late Mr. Edwin, and is becoming popular with the *upper ranks*,—we mean, the galleries.

The Smugglers; a Musical Drama, in Two Acts. As it is performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane. By Samuel Birch. 8vo. 1s. Dilly. 1796.

This little drama was written for the benefit of a popular performer, and has enough of business and bustle to recommend it as an afterpiece, especially with the auxiliaries of music and scenery. One or two of the songs are superior to what we commonly meet with in operatical pieces; but in rendering the dialogue palatable, the author must have been greatly indebted to the performers.

The Cottage, an Operatic Farce. In Two Acts. By James Smith. 8vo. 1s. Kearley. 1796.

A sentimental trifle, the fable of which is borrowed from the principal incident in *Love in a Village*. The poetry of the songs is rather above mediocrity; but the dialogue betrays a pen unused to dramatic writing.

MEDICAL AND ANATOMICAL.

Observations on Pregnancy, and the Diseases incident to that Period; together with their Remedies, and some useful Cautions particularly necessary for Women during a first Pregnancy. To which are added, Observations on the Diseases of Children. By James Clough, Surgeon. 8vo. Printed for the Author. 1796.

Medical gentlemen, when called to the exercise of that part of the profession which they have chosen, generally find it convenient to introduce themselves to notice by a publication. In the obstetric department, instances of this kind have been extremely numerous; and we really can find no other cause to which we can ascribe the observations of Mr. Clough; for in neither the matter nor the execution of his work, is there any thing new or important. The province of the nurse is indeed invaded, but without affording the good lady an opportunity of profiting by it.

On the diseases of children we are, however, gravely told, that—

‘The impediments which children have been supposed to labour under, from their being unable to express themselves by words, are only impediments to those who are unacquainted with their gestures; which, when properly attended to, will be found certain indications of their complaints.’ P. 21.

A little afterwards we find that it sometimes unfortunately happens, that, notwithstanding the utmost watchfulness of the practitioner, the diseases of children are overlooked; we are therefore

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presented with their 'symptoms of disease,' and hear nothing more of the *gestures*. They are these—

'1. A sharpness or angular appearance of the joints, differing from the rounded form of health.

'2. The belly concave or flatter towards its upper part, with an enlargement of its bottom, generally hard and pendulous.

'3. Large head, which gives the face a diminutive appearance.

'4. Openings of the head, greater than common; denoting weakness, rickets, dropfy of the head, &c.

'5. Paleness of the skin; which appears tinged with yellow, different from the rosy blush of health.

'6. Blackness round the mouth and eyes, denoting inward fits.

'7. Scrotum or pulse relaxed, a symptom of debility or weakness.

'8. Picking the face, eyelids, or lips, when accompanied with a dry tongue, are signs of fever.

'9. Hands in the mouth—of something amiss there: and if the child flavers much—of teething.

'10. Picking the nose, grinding the teeth, startings, and convulsions, are indications of worms.

'11. Drawing up the knees to the belly—of pain there.

'12. Squinting at four months—of dropfy in the head.

'13. Stools green—of acidities present in the stomach and bowels: if white, of jaundice, or an interruption of the secretion of bile.

'14. Smiling during sleep—of irritation of the bowels, from wind collected there.

'To the above may be added, frequent crying; the inseparable attendant of unhealthy children.' P. 22.

What good woman would think herself qualified for the office of nursing, who did not know this and much more?

Observations on the Venereal Disease, by T. Greyson, Surgeon, Discoverer of the Antisyphilitic, to prevent the Venereal Disease.
12mo. 6d. Printed for the Author. 1796.

A quack advertisement.

The Anatomy of the Horse. Accompanied with Remarks Physiological, Pathological, Chirurgical, and Natural. Illustrated with a Set of Tables, elegantly engraved and coloured. Large Folio. No. I. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1796.

An immensely large folio, consisting of a frontispiece, one page of preface, one page of letter-press! and one page of references to the plate!!—This plate is an aqua tinta engraving of the skeleton of a horse, and is accompanied with an outline figure, bearing the marks of reference to the description. In the Preface, after we had read that the motive for undertaking this publication is a desire

to communicate the elementary principles of knowledge to the farrier, we meet with the following and concluding sentence—

‘ Professional engagements alone prevent the author’s name from appearing ; nor should this prejudice the mind of any one against it, as the reason must be obvious ; for, until all orders of mankind become *perfectly enlightened*, such concealment, though unpleasant, is necessary.’

From a professional character thus delicately circumstanced, we may fairly expect some proofs of extensive knowledge and correct information ; let us then turn over to the *page* of this number, and search—

‘ Bones are furnished with arteries of two kinds, one entering at their extremities to afford nourishment, the other piercing the middle to secrete the marrow, which is deposited in the cells we have noticed. This substance keeps them moist and from becoming brittle ; thus the bones of old animals, where it exists but in small quantities, break more frequently than those of younger. It may become diseased from long fevers ; it then corrodes and eats through the bone, producing a thin foetid discharge ; this will happen (more particularly to blood colts near the knee and hock) without previous fever, and then is called, as in the human, *spina ventosa*.’

In truth, we are compelled to dispute every part of the foregoing statements and conclusions : 1. We have not a single proof that the ‘ arteries entering the middle of bones, secrete marrow’—These, as well as those arteries which pierce the extremities of *cylindrical* bones, equally ramify in their substance. And what shall we say of those bones which, from their forms, have no extremities such as our author alludes to ? 2. The marrow keeps the ‘ bone moist and prevents its becoming brittle’—How is this purpose effected in the bones of animals which have no marrow,—as for example, in birds, where they are filled with air, and in fishes where they are generally solid ?—Again, young bones are said by our author to contain more marrow than old ones. The reverse is the truth ; young bones are only less brittle than old ones, in proportion to the quantity of lime which is combined in their substance ; and this is always in a smaller proportion in growing bones, than in those of the adult. The ‘ marrow may become diseased from long fevers ; it then corrodes and eats through the bone ;’ neither of these statements is supported by either positive proofs or correct reasoning.

Such anatomical descriptions, and such physiological conclusions, must ever tend to confuse and darken the minds of men, rather than instruct them. In fine, the work before us is infinitely below the modern state of knowledge ; and the plate is inferior to many which are published upon the same subject. It is a severe task to condemn any literary production with harshness : but it is our duty to endeavour to correct the growing evil of multiplying books un-

necessarily. It gives us pain to find nothing but faults in any work, which even only pretends to communicate useful knowledge. In the present case, justice overcomes our feelings, and we are led to hope that it is not the production of any professional man, but of some adventuring book-maker, who, like the Jew with his razors in Peter Pindar's story, has designed it, not with a view to utility, but 'to sell.'

N O V E L S.

Delves, a Welch Tale. By Mrs. Gunning. 2 Vols. 12mo. 10s. sewed. Allen and West. 1796.

We have been much entertained with this *Welch Tale*; it is told with humour and simplicity, and with some strokes of nature and pathos. Delves, and his dog Trimbusli, fasten themselves on the reader's affections; we pursue them with interest and pleasure through their frolicks and peregrinations. The scenes and conversations are characteristic; the plot is simple, the style unaffected, and the *dénouement* happy and satisfactory. It is a production more particularly calculated to amuse young persons by its pleasantry and *naïveté*.

Joan!!! a Novel. By Matilda Fitz-John. 4 Vols. 12mo. 14s. sewed. Hookham and Carpenter. 1796.

This novel has a great deal of plot and intricacy, and displays some invention and ingenuity; but it is very difficult sufficiently to connect and render probable a variety of complicated incidents. The most celebrated and best executed novels have generally been distinguished by a simplicity of plan, as Richardson's *Clarissa*, the *Héloïse* of Rousseau, &c. Even extraordinary events in real life would, when related, gain credit with difficulty, without great attention to the minute connecting circumstances, and to the springs and motives of action. In the work before us, the duplicity and atrocity of lady Jemima Byram's conduct has no sufficient motive or excuse: the plain path would have been evidently more conducive to her interest, in delivering up Elizabeth to her natural friends, who were content to waive her legal rights. We are aware that cunning will sometimes over-reach itself: but the human mind is composed of mixed materials; nature nor education seldom produce monsters; injudicious novelists, in drawing characters, aim too much at glaring contrasts. Similar objections might be made against the conduct of the Haccombes to their ward, sir Edward, the will of whose father was highly absurd and improbable; neither does our author always observe consistency of character:—it is easy to draw characters, but difficult to put them in correspondent motion.

The language and conversations in many parts of the work are vulgar; yet, upon the whole, it has some merit and interest, carrying the reader forward by its shifting scenes, and is well calculated to beguile a languid or a vacant hour.

L A W.

The Practice of the Courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas. By Baker John Sellen, Esq. Vol. II. 8vo. 12s. 6d. Boards. Butterworth. 1796.

This volume, the publication of which has been rather too long delayed, completes a book of practice that will be found highly useful by every department in the legal profession. We strongly recommend its repeated perusal to those young barristers, many of whom, though possessed of respectable talents, are doomed to sit silent in the courts, while empty-headed and bustling intruders, more mechanically acquainted with the rules of practice, nearly monopolise the junior business of the bar.

Mr. Baker in his Appendix has wisely inserted the material parts of the valuable introduction to Crompton's Practice, upon which, after purchasing the copy-right, Mr. Baker formed the plan of the present work.

The Practice of the Court of Chancery. Originally published by Joseph Harrison, of Lincoln's-Inn, Esq. and enlarged by John Griffith Williams, Esq. Barrister at Law. The Eighth Edition, with considerable Additions; including the Proceedings before the Master in Sales of Estates, Maintenance for Infants, the Appointment of a Receiver, &c. and several new Precedents, by Wilmot Parker, Solicitor. 2 Vols. 8vo 16s. Boards. Butterworth. 1796.

This edition of Harrison's Chancery Practice presents to the profession a book of acknowledged utility, much improved by the judicious labour of Mr. Parker, who appears accurately acquainted with all the branches of equity jurisdiction, and whose additional references to the various authorities we have found to be correct and pertinent.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Memoirs of a late eminent Advocate, and Member of the Honourable Society of Lincoln's-Inn. By William Melmoth, Esq. 8vo. 5s. Sewed. Cadell and Davies. 1796.

The elegant and spirited pen of Mr. Melmoth has often received the applause of criticism for its original productions, and for the facility with which it has given the idiom of our language to the choicest beauties of classical literature.

Our author's father, Mr. Melmoth, is the 'eminent advocate' who is the subject of these memoirs: they present a well-written tribute of respect to the memory of an able and a good man: but they contain little or no incident, and are chiefly valuable as the vehicle of several letters, in which the lawfulness of the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, taken to king William after the Revolution, is very fully and acutely discussed.

The

The Correspondence between the Earl and Countess of Jersey, and the Rev. Dr. Randolph, upon the Subject of some Letters belonging to H. R. H. the Princess of Wales, of late so much the Topic of public Conversation. 8vo. 1s. R. White. 1796.

‘Great pains having been taken for some time past,’ says lord Jersey, ‘to engage the attention of the public, by repeated malicious and scandalous paragraphs in the newspapers. accusing the countess of Jersey of having opened a letter entrusted to the care of her ladyship by her royal highness the princess of Wales; adding, also, that the letter so opened had been conveyed by the countess to a certain great female personage; I do now take it upon me to assert unequivocally, and without a possibility of contradiction, that such insinuations are founded solely in malice and not in truth.’ In corroboration of this assertion of the noble author, the letters assure us that the packet never was in lady Jersey’s hands; that doctor Randolph took it to the inn, and booked it, and it was never more heard of. But as the packet (p. 34) was avowedly of little value, it is impossible to conceive that the loss of it could have been attended with *all those consequences* which have lately been the topic of public conversation, and to which this pamphlet does not allude in the most distant manner.

Italian Tracts; or a Collection of Selected Pieces. 8vo. 2s. Molini. 1796.

The occasion of these miscellanies being published in the present form is explained in the following concise Advertisement—

‘The plan of an Italian magazine having not met with encouragement, the editor has been advised to make a pamphlet of the two numbers already printed.’ p. iii.

That the plan of an Italian magazine should not have succeeded, is to us a matter of surprise, when we consider the numerous productions of genius and elegant literature which have flourished on the classic soil of Italy. The editor of this publication presents an interesting view of the state of literature in Italy,—its progress in the arts, sciences, &c.—interspersed with many solid and ingenious critical remarks.

From among other curious pieces of a different nature, we extract a letter written by Galileo, the philosophic and celebrated supporter of the Copernican system—

‘You well know, most excellent father Vincenzo, that my life has hitherto been subject to a variety of accidents and misfortunes, which nothing but the patience of a philosopher could regard with indifference, considering them as the necessary effects of those strange revolutions, to which the world we inhabit, is liable. Men, endued with the like nature with ourselves, frequently require our endeavours to be of service to them, with ingratitude, rapine, and false accusations; and all these have happened to me
in

in the course of my life. This hint may be sufficient, without my enlarging on the subject of the crime laid to my charge, of which I feel conscious of being perfectly innocent. You require of me, in your last, the particulars of what has happened to me in Rome. The tribunal, by which I have been judged nothing less than an heretic, for having been a reasonable being, engages much of my attention. Who knows but I may be reduced, by the injuries I have suffered from these men, to change my profession of a philosopher for that of the historian of the inquisition? They have at last prevailed so far as to compel me to become ignorant and foolish, or at least to pretend to be so. My dear father Vincenzo, I am not averse from committing to paper my sentiments on the subject of your enquiry, provided proper precautions be taken that this letter may reach you safely. This must suffice, as I do not feel inclined to write a book on my trial and the inquisition, because by no means intended by nature for a divine, or the author of a criminal journal.

‘ I had, from an early period of my life, had it in contemplation to publish a dialogue on the Ptolemaic and Copernican systems, on which subject, from the time I first went as lecturer to Padua, I had made continual philosophical observations, principally induced by the idea I entertained of being able to explain the flux and reflux of the sea by the supposed motions of the earth. Something of this nature was expressed by me, at the time when I was honoured at Padua with the attendance of prince Gustavus of Sweden, who from his youth had travelled *incognito* in Italy, and settled for many months in that city with his retinue. I had the good fortune to gain his esteem by my new speculations and curious problems, which were daily proposed and solved by me; at that time also he wished me to teach him the Tuscan language. My sentiments on the motion of the earth soon after became publicly known at Rome, from a tolerably long essay addressed to cardinal Orsini; I then began to be openly accused as a rash and scandalous writer. After the publication of my dialogue, I was cited to Rome by the holy office, where I arrived on February the 10th, 1632, and surrendered myself to the clemency of that tribunal, and the sovereign pontiff, Urban VIII. who, notwithstanding all, deemed me worthy of his esteem, though I was not skilled in writing epigrams, or amorous sonnets. I was confined in the delicious palace of the *Trinità de’ Monti*, the residence of the Tuscan ambassador.

‘ The day after, the commissary, father Lancio, came for me, and took me with him in a carriage: on the road he put many questions to me, and seemed very zealous that I should repair the scandal which I had caused through Italy, by my sentiments on the motion of the earth. To all the solid and mathematical reasons which I advanced in support of my opinion, he replied, in the words of scripture, *Terra autem in æternum stabit, quia terra autem in æternum stabit*. With
this

this conversation we at length arrived at the tribunal, situated to the west of the magnificent church of St. Peter. I was immediately conducted by the commissary to the judge, monsignor Vitrici, with whom I found two Dominicans. They civilly requested me to produce my reasons in full congregation for my opinion; assuring me I should be allowed ample time for my defence, if I should be found guilty. The Thursday following I was presented to the congregation; and there I brought forward my proofs. Unfortunately for me, they were not understood; and, notwithstanding all my efforts, I had not ability enough to convince my judges. The passage from scripture was repeatedly quoted against me. I then recollected a scriptural argument which I advanced, but failed of success. I asserted that the expressions of the Bible on the subject of the astronomical sciences, were used in conformity to ancient notions and prejudices; and that probably the passage adduced against me was of a similar nature with one in Job, xxxvii. 18. where it is said that the heavens were strong, and like a polished mirror. This is said by Elihu: and it appears that he spoke according to the system of Ptolemy, which has been demonstrated to be absurd by modern philosophy, and what may still more firmly be relied on, by sound reason. If therefore so much stress be laid on the staying of the sun by Joshua, in order to prove that the sun moves, equal weight ought to be given to another passage, where it is said, that heaven is composed of various heavens, like so many mirrors. The conclusion appeared to me to be just; notwithstanding this, it was entirely overlooked; and the only answer I received was a shrug of the shoulders, the constant refuge of those who hold any opinion through prejudice, or the force of authority. Finally, I was compelled, as a good catholic, to retract my opinion, and my dialogue was prohibited under heavy penalties. After five months I was dismissed from Rome, at the time when Florence was ravaged by the plague; and, with a generous compassion, the residence of monsignor Piccolomini, the dearest friend I had in Siena, was assigned to me as my prison. The elegant conversation of this beloved friend I enjoyed with so much tranquillity and satisfaction of mind, that I soon recommenced my studies; discovered and demonstrated great part of my mechanical conclusions on the resistance of solid bodies, with some other speculations. At the end of about five months, the pestilence having ceased in my country, about the beginning of December, 1633, I was permitted by his holiness to change my confinement for the liberty of that country which I so much esteemed. I returned then to the village of Bellosguardo, whence I went to Arcetri, where at present I breathe that salubrious air in the vicinity of my beloved country Florence. Adieu. P. 58.

Such an amiable man, and such a rational philosophy, were objects of persecution in the seventeenth century!



T H E

CRITICAL REVIEW.

For NOVEMBER, 1796.

Miscellaneous Works of Edward Gibbon, Esq. with Memoirs of his Life and Writings, composed by Himself: illustrated from his Letters, with occasional Notes and Narrative, by John Lord Sheffield. 2 Vols. 4to. 2l. 10s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1796.

THE unworthy practice of exposing the sweepings of the studies of men eminent in literature has been so often and so severely reprobated, that we imagined it would never have been attempted again, but by those whom absolute want impelled to it. In that description lord Sheffield cannot be classed; either a degrading avarice to profit by the curiosity of the public, or a puerile vanity to behold his name united with that of the author of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, must have influenced him to this step. How far the first passion may be an inmate of his lordship's breast, it is not for us to determine; but the last stands openly revealed in the publication itself; and there are, we hope, very few men in this country, whose modesty would not have instructed them to have expunged those ill-timed panegyrics, which the zeal of friendship, or the usage of politeness, had prompted a confidential correspondent to lavish with so profuse a hand. Does lord Sheffield feel, that, as an author, he really possessed the power of turning the tide of public opinion, or, as a politician, that his talents entitled him to occupy the station of secretary at war?—Alas! those pamphlets which he compelled us so laboriously to wade through, have been long since consigned to oblivion; and as a British senator, his name has been confounded, by the leaders of both parties, in the long list of insignificants; would he, therefore, wish us rather to accuse the blind partiality or insincerity of his departed friend, or his own weakness and credulity? And how has he repaid the praises of that friend?—he has exhibited his genius in an unfavourable and mutilated form; and has hung up his person to ridicule

in an hideous caricature. Mr. Gibbon has erected to himself a vast and splendid monument of literary glory, the importance of which, such men as lord Sheffield are unequal to appreciate; and which they ought to approach with diffidence, and bend before with reverence:

Of the works which have been so diligently collected to swell two ponderous quarto volumes, some have before met the public eye, and some had better have been concealed for ever from it. Of the former, are the *Essai sur l'Etude de la Litterature*, and *Critical Observations on the Design of the Sixth Book of the Æneid*; of the latter is the major part of the letters; some of these are extremely frivolous, and others are chiefly complaining of pecuniary embarrassments; nor can the *real* friends of Mr. Gibbon be highly gratified in having those inserted, which describe that gentleman as acting in the character of a political mercenary.

Of all the contents, perhaps, the only one that ought to have seen the light, is the life of Mr. Gibbon, which contains an account of the books that he read: and this it is that we shall chiefly recommend to the perusal of our readers.

The grandfather of Mr. Gibbon had been deeply involved in the iniquity of the south-sea scheme; and his guilt was punished by a forfeiture of near one hundred thousand pounds: ten thousand were left him, on which his industry erected a new fortune, scarcely inferior to the former. The easy or opulent circumstances of the father of Mr. Gibbon enabled him to give his son a liberal education; but the weakness of his constitution seemed at first to militate against his desire of study. After passing a short time at a private school at Kingston, and at the public one of Westminster, he was committed to the tuition of Dr. Francis, the translator of Horace, and thence transplanted to Magdalen College, Oxford.

‘ The first tutor into whose hands I was resigned appears to have been one of the best of the tribe: Dr. Waldegrave was a learned and pious man, of a mild disposition, strict morals, and abstemious life, who seldom mingled in the politics or the jollity of the college. But his knowledge of the world was confined to the university; his learning was of the last, rather than of the present age; his temper was indolent; his faculties, which were not of the first rate, had been relaxed by the climate, and he was satisfied, like his fellows, with the slight and superficial discharge of an important trust. As soon as my tutor had sounded the insufficiency of his disciple in school-learning, he proposed that we should read every morning from ten to eleven the comedies of Terence. The sum of my improvement in the university of Oxford is confined to three or four Latin plays; and even the study of an elegant classic, which might

might have been illustrated by a comparison of ancient and modern theatres, was reduced to a dry and literal interpretation of the author's text. During the first weeks I constantly attended these lessons in my tutor's room; but as they appeared equally devoid of profit and pleasure, I was once tempted to try the experiment of a formal apology. The apology was accepted with a smile. I repeated the offence with less ceremony; the excuse was admitted with the same indulgence: the slightest motive of laziness or indispotion, the most trifling avocation at home or abroad, was allowed as a worthy impediment; nor did my tutor appear conscious of my absence or neglect. Had the hour of lecture been constantly filled, a single hour was a small portion of my academic leisure. No plan of study was recommended for my use; no exercises were prescribed for his inspection; and, at the most precious season of youth, whole days and weeks were suffered to elapse without labour or amusement, without advice or account. I should have listened to the voice of reason and of my tutor; his mild behaviour had gained my confidence. I preferred his society to that of the younger students; and in our evening walks to the top of Heddington-hill, we freely conversed on a variety of subjects. Since the days of Pocock and Hyde, oriental learning has always been the pride of Oxford, and I once expressed an inclination to study Arabic. His prudence discouraged this childish fancy; but he neglected the fair occasion of directing the ardour of a curious mind. During my absence in the summer vacation, Dr. Waldegrave accepted a college living at Washington in Sussex, and on my return I no longer found him at Oxford. From that time I have lost sight of my first tutor; but at the end of thirty years (1781) he was still alive; and the practice of exercise and temperance had entitled him to a healthy old age.' Vol. i. p. 39.

' After the departure of Dr. Waldegrave, I was transferred, with his other pupils, to his academical heir, whose literary character did not command the respect of the college. Dr. * * * * well remembered that he had a salary to receive, and only forgot that he had a duty to perform. Instead of guiding the studies, and watching over the behaviour of his disciple, I was never summoned to attend even the ceremony of a lecture; and, excepting one voluntary visit to his rooms, during the eight months of his titular office, the tutor and pupil lived in the same college as strangers to each other. The want of experience, of advice, and of occupation, soon betrayed me into some improprieties of conduct, ill-chosen company, late hours, and inconsiderate expence. My growing debts might be secret; but my frequent absence was visible and scandalous: and a tour to Bath, a visit into Buckinghamshire, and four excursions to London in the same winter, were costly and dangerous frolics. They were, indeed, without a meaning, as with-

out an excuse. The irksomeness of a cloistered life repeatedly tempted me to wander; but my chief pleasure was that of travelling; and I was too young and bashful to enjoy, like a manly Oxonian in town, the pleasures of London. In all these excursions I eloped from Oxford; I returned to college; in a few days I eloped again, as if I had been an independent stranger in a hired lodging, without once hearing the voice of admonition, without once feeling the hand of control. Yet my time was lost, my expences were multiplied, my behaviour abroad was unknown; folly as well as vice should have awakened the attention of my superiors, and my tender years would have justified a more than ordinary degree of restraint and discipline.

‘It might at least be expected, that an ecclesiastical school should inculcate the orthodox principles of religion. But our venerable mother had contrived to unite the opposite extremes of bigotry and indifference: an heretic, or unbeliever, was a monster in her eyes; but she was always, or often, or sometimes, remiss in the spiritual education of her own children. According to the statutes of the university, every student, before he is matriculated, must subscribe his assent to the thirty-nine articles of the church of England, which are signed by more than read, and read by more than believe them. My insufficient age excused me, however, from the immediate performance of this legal ceremony; and the vice-chancellor directed me to return, as soon as I should have accomplished my fifteenth year; recommending me, in the mean while, to the instruction of my college. My college forgot to instruct: I forgot to return, and was myself forgotten by the first magistrate of the university. Without a single lecture, either public or private, either christian or protestant, without any academical subscription, without any episcopal confirmation, I was left by the dim light of my catechism to grope my way to the chapel and communion-table, where I was admitted, without a question, how far, or by what means, I might be qualified to receive the sacrament. Such almost incredible neglect was productive of the worst mischiefs. From my childhood I had been fond of religious disputation: my poor aunt has been often puzzled by the mysteries which she strove to believe; nor had the elastic spring been totally broken by the weight of the atmosphere of Oxford. The blind activity of idleness urged me to advance without armour into the dangerous mazes of controversy; and at the age of sixteen, I bewildered myself in the errors of the church of Rome.’ Vol. i. p. 42.

‘For my own part, I am proud of an honest sacrifice of interest to conscience. I can never blush, if my tender mind was entangled in the sophistry that seduced the acute and manly understandings of Chillingworth and Bayle, who afterwards emerged from superstition to scepticism.’ Vol. i. p. 47.

We will not waste time in commenting on the frivolity of this apology.

From Oxford Mr. Gibbon was sent to Lausanne, where he soon after abjured the religious errors he had fallen into, and reconciled himself to the protestant church. During his residence in Switzerland, he first felt the influence of the more tender passions.

‘ I hesitate, from the apprehension of ridicule, when I approach the delicate subject of my early love. By this word I do not mean the polite attention, the gallantry, without hope or design, which has originated in the spirit of chivalry, and is interwoven with the texture of French manners. I understand by this passion the union of desire, friendship, and tenderness, which is inflamed by a single female, which prefers her to the rest of her sex, and which seeks her possession as the supreme or the sole happiness of our being. I need not blush at recollecting the object of my choice; and though my love was disappointed of success, I am rather proud that I was once capable of feeling such a pure and exalted sentiment. The personal attractions of Mademoiselle Susan Curchod were embellished by the virtues and talents of the mind. Her fortune was humble, but her family was respectable. Her mother, a native of France, had preferred her religion to her country. The profession of her father did not extinguish the moderation and philosophy of his temper, and he lived content with a small salary and laborious duty, in the obscure lot of minister of Crassy, in the mountains that separate the Pays de Vaud from the county of Burgundy. In the solitude of a sequestered village he bestowed a liberal, and even learned, education on his only daughter. She surpassed his hopes by her proficiency in the sciences and languages; and in her short visits to some relations at Lausanne, the wit, the beauty, and erudition of Mademoiselle Curchod were the theme of universal applause. The report of such a prodigy awakened my curiosity; I saw and loved. I found her learned without pedantry, lively in conversation, pure in sentiment, and elegant in manners; and the first sudden emotion was fortified by the habits and knowledge of a more familiar acquaintance. She permitted me to make her two or three visits at her father’s house. I passed some happy days there, in the mountains of Burgundy, and her parents honourably encouraged the connection. In a calm retirement the gay vanity of youth no longer fluttered in her bosom; she listened to the voice of truth and passion, and I might presume to hope that I had made some impression on a virtuous heart. At Crassy and Lausanne I indulged my dream of felicity: but on my return to England, I soon discovered that my father would not hear of this strange alliance, and that without his consent I was myself destitute and helpless. After a painful struggle I yielded to my fate: I sigh-

ed as a lover, I obeyed as a son ; my wound was insensibly healed by time, absence, and the habits of a new life. My cure was accelerated by a faithful report of the tranquillity and cheerfulness of the lady herself, and my love subsided in friendship and esteem. The minister of Crasly soon afterwards died ; his stipend died with him : his daughter retired to Geneva, where, by teaching young ladies, she earned a hard subsistence for herself and her mother ; but in her lowest distress she maintained a spotless reputation, and a dignified behaviour. A rich banker of Paris, a citizen of Geneva, had the good fortune and good sense to discover and possess this inestimable treasure : and in the capital of taste and luxury she resisted the temptations of wealth, as she had sustained the hardships of indigence. The genius of her husband had exalted him to the most conspicuous station in Europe. In every change of prosperity and disgrace he has reclined on the bosom of a faithful friend ; and Mademoiselle Curchod is now the wife of M. Necker, the minister, and perhaps the legislator, of the French monarchy.' Vol. i. p. 73.

On the return of Mr. Gibbon to England, he published his first work, *Essai sur l'Etude de la Litterature* ; and soon after he entered into the Hampshire militia, in which he rose to the rank of lieutenant-colonel ; but the duties of a military life could not have been congenial to his taste, and he appears to have escaped from them with pleasure.

' The design of my first work, the *Essay on the Study of Literature*, was suggested by a refinement of vanity, the desire of justifying and praising the object of a favourite pursuit. In France, to which my ideas were confined, the learning and language of Greece and Rome were neglected by a philosophic age. The guardian of those studies, the Academy of Inscriptions, was degraded to the lowest rank among the three royal societies of Paris : the new appellation of *Erudits* was contemptuously applied to the successors of Lipsius and Casaubon ; and I was provoked to hear (see M. d'Alembert *Discours preliminaire à l'Encyclopedie*) that the exercise of the memory, their sole merit, had been superseded by the nobler faculties of the imagination and the judgment. I was ambitious of proving by my own example, as well as by my precepts, that all the faculties of the mind may be exercised and displayed by the study of ancient literature : I began to select and adorn the various proofs and illustrations which had offered themselves in reading the classics, and the first pages or chapters of my essay were composed before my departure from Lausanne. The hurry of the journey, and of the first weeks of my English life, suspended all thoughts of serious application : but my object was ever before my eyes ; and no more than ten days, from the first to the eleventh of July, were suffered to elapse after my summer establishment at Buriton. My essay was finished in about six weeks ; and as soon as a fair copy had

had been transcribed by one of the French prisoners at Petersfield, I looked round for a critic and judge of my first performance. A writer can seldom be content with the doubtful recompence of solitary approbation; but a youth ignorant of the world, and of himself, must desire to weigh his talents in some scales less partial than his own: my conduct was natural, my motive laudable, my choice of Dr. Maty judicious and fortunate. By descent and education Dr. Maty, though born in Holland, might be considered as a Frenchman; but he was fixed in London by the practice of physic, and an office in the British Museum. His reputation was justly founded on the eighteen volumes of the *Journal Britannique*, which he had supported, almost alone, with perseverance and success. This humble though useful labour, which had once been dignified by the genius of Bayle and the learning of Le Clerc, was not disgraced by the taste, the knowledge, and the judgment of Maty: he exhibits a candid and pleasing view of the state of literature in England during a period of six years (January 1750—December 1755); and, far different from his angry son, he handles the rod of criticism with the tenderness and reluctance of a parent. The author of the *Journal Britannique* sometimes aspires to the character of a poet and philosopher: his style is pure and elegant; and in his virtues, or even in his defects, he may be ranked as one of the last disciples of the school of Fontenelle. His answer to my first letter was prompt and polite: after a careful examination he returned my manuscript, with some animadversion and much applause; and when I visited London in the ensuing winter, we discussed the design and execution in several free and familiar conversations. In a short excursion to Buriton I reviewed my essay, according to his friendly advice; and after suppressing a third, adding a third, and altering a third, I consummated my first labour by a short preface, which is dated February 3d, 1759. Yet I still shrunk from the press with the terrors of virgin modesty: the manuscript was safely deposited in my desk; and as my attention was engaged by new objects, the delay might have been prolonged till I had fulfilled the precept of Horace, "*nonumque prematur in annum.*" Father Sirmond, a learned Jesuit, was still more right, since he advised a young friend to expect the mature age of fifty, before he gave himself or his writings to the public (*Olivet Histoire de l'Academie Françoise*, tom. ii. p. 143). The counsel was singular; but it is still more singular that it should have been approved by the example of the author. Sirmond was himself fifty-five years of age when he published (in 1614) his first work, an edition of *Sidonius Apollinaris*, with many valuable annotations: (see his life, before the great edition of his works in five volumes folio, Paris, 1636, e *Typographiâ Regiâ*.)

Two years elapsed in silence: but in the spring of 1761 I yielded to the authority of a parent, and complied, like a pious

son, with the wish of my own heart. My private resolves were influenced by the state of Europe. About this time the belligerent powers had made and accepted overtures of peace; our English plenipotentiaries were named to assist at the congress of Augsbourg, which never met; I wished to attend them as a gentleman or a secretary; and my father fondly believed that the proof of some literary talents might introduce me to public notice, and second the recommendations of my friends. After a last revival I consulted with Mr. Mallet and Dr. Maty, who approved the design and promoted the execution. Mr. Mallet, after hearing me read my manuscript, received it from my hands, and delivered it into those of Becket, with whom he made an agreement in my name; an easy agreement: I required only a certain number of copies; and, without transferring my property, I devolved on the bookseller the charges and profits of the edition. Dr. Maty undertook, in my absence, to correct the sheets: he inserted, without my knowledge, an elegant and flattering epistle to the author; which is composed, however, with so much art, that, in case of a defeat, his favourable report might have been ascribed to the indulgence of a friend for the rash attempt of a young English gentleman. The work was printed and published, under the title of *Essai sur l'Etude de la Litterature*, à Londres, chez T. Becket et P. A. de Hondt, 1761, in a small volume in duodecimo: my dedication to my father, a proper and pious address, was composed the twenty-eighth of May: Dr. Maty's letter is dated the 16th of June; and I received the first copy (June 23d) at Alresford, two days before I marched with the Hampshire militia. Some weeks afterwards, on the same ground, I presented my book to the late duke of York, who breakfasted in colonel Pitt's tent. By my father's direction, and Mallet's advice, many literary gifts were distributed to several eminent characters in England and France; two books were sent to the count de Caylus, and the duchesse d'Aiguillon, at Paris: I had reserved twenty copies for my friends at Lausanne, as the first fruits of my education, and a grateful token of my remembrance: and on all these persons I levied an unavoidable tax of civility and compliment. It is not surprising that a work, of which the style and sentiments were so totally foreign, should have been more successful abroad than at home. I was delighted by the copious extracts, the warm commendations, and the flattering predictions of the journals of France and Holland: and the next year (1762) a new edition (I believe at Geneva) extended the fame, or at least the circulation, of the work. In England it was received with cold indifference, little read, and speedily forgotten: a small impression was slowly dispersed; the bookseller murmured, and the author (had his feelings been more exquisite) might have wept over the blunders and baldness of the English translation. The publication of my History fifteen years afterwards revived the memory of my first performance, and the

Essay was eagerly sought in the shops. But I refused the permission which Becket solicited of reprinting it: the public curiosity was imperfectly satisfied by a pirated copy of the booksellers of Dublin; and when a copy of the original edition has been discovered in a sale, the primitive value of half-a-crown has risen to the fanciful price of a guinea or thirty shillings.' Vol. i. p. 86.

The next literary attempt of Mr. Gibbon was not equally successful: it was a history of the revolution of Switzerland—

‘ According to the plan, which was soon conceived and digested, I embraced a period of two hundred years, from the association of the three peasants of the Alps to the plenitude and prosperity of the Helvetic body in the sixteenth century. I should have described the deliverance and victory of the Swiss, who have never shed the blood of their tyrants but in a field of battle; the laws and manners of the confederate states; the splendid trophies of the Austrian, Burgundian, and Italian wars; and the wisdom of a nation, who, after some sallies of martial adventure, has been content to guard the blessings of peace with the sword of freedom.

— Manus hæc inimica tyrannis

Ense petit placidam sub libertate quietem.

My judgment, as well as my enthusiasm, was satisfied with the glorious theme; and the assistance of Deyverdun seemed to remove an insuperable obstacle. The French or Latin memorials, of which I was not ignorant, are inconsiderable in number and weight; but in the perfect acquaintance of my friend with the German language, I found the key of a more valuable collection. The most necessary books were procured; he translated, for my use, the folio volume of Schilling, a copious and contemporary relation of the war of Burgundy; we read and marked the most interesting parts of the great chronicle of Tschudi; and by his labour, or that of an inferior assistant, large extracts were made from the History of Lauffer and the Dictionary of Lew: yet such was the distance and delay, that two years elapsed in these preparatory steps; and it was late in the third summer (1767) before I entered, with these slender materials, on the more agreeable task of composition. A specimen of my history, the first book, was read the following winter in a literary society of foreigners in London; and as the author was unknown, I listened, without observation, to the free strictures, and unfavourable sentence, of my judges. The momentary sensation was painful; but their condemnation was ratified by my cooler thoughts. I delivered my imperfect sheets to the flames, and for ever renounced a design in which some expence, much labour, and more time, had been so vainly consumed. I cannot regret the loss of a slight and superficial essay; for such the work must have been in the hands of a stranger, uninformed by the scholars and states-

men,

men, and remote from the libraries and archives of the Swiss republic. My antient habits, and the presence of Deyverdun, encouraged me to write in French for the continent of Europe; but I was conscious myself that my style, above prose and below poetry, degenerated into a verbose and turgid declamation. Perhaps I may impute the failure to the injudicious choice of a foreign language. Perhaps I may suspect that the language itself is ill adapted to sustain the vigour and dignity of an important narrative. But if France, so rich in literary merit, had produced a great original historian, his genius would have formed and fixed the idiom to the proper tone, the peculiar mode of historical eloquence.' Vol. i. p. 132.

But the mortification of this was soon forgotten, in the success with which he encountered the giant character of Warburton—

‘ My next publication was an accidental fall of love and resentment; of my reverence for modest genius, and my aversion for insolent pedantry. The sixth book of the *Æneid* is the most pleasing and perfect composition of Latin poetry. The descent of *Æneas* and the Sybil to the infernal regions, to the world of spirits, expands an awful and boundless prospect, from the nocturnal gloom of the Cumæan grot,

Ibant obscuri solâ sub nocte per umbram,
to the meridian brightness of the Elysian fields;

Largior hic campos æther et lumine vestit
Purpureo——

from the dreams of simple nature, to the dreams, alas! of Egyptian theology, and the philosophy of the Greeks. But the final dismissal of the hero through the ivory gate, whence

Falsa ad cœlum mittunt infomnia manes,

seems to dissolve the whole enchantment, and leaves the reader in a state of cold and anxious scepticism. This most lame and impotent conclusion has been variously imputed to the taste or irreligion of Virgil; but, according to the more elaborate interpretation of bishop Warburton, the descent to hell is not a false, but a mimic scene; which represents the initiation of *Æneas*, in the character of a law-giver, to the Eleusinian mysteries. This hypothesis, a singular chapter in the Divine Legation of Moses, had been admitted by many as true; it was praised by all as ingenious; nor had it been exposed, in a space of thirty years, to a fair and critical discussion. The learning and the abilities of the author had raised him to a just eminence; but he reigned the dictator and tyrant of the world of literature. The real merit of Warburton was degraded by the pride and

and presumption with which he pronounced his infallible decrees; in his polemic writings he lashed his antagonists without mercy or moderation; and his servile flatterers, (see the base and malignant Essay on the Delicacy of Friendship,) exalting the master critic far above Aristotle and Longinus, assaulted every modest dissenter who refused to consult the oracle, and to adore the idol. In a land of liberty, such despotism must provoke a general opposition, and the zeal of opposition is seldom candid or impartial. A late professor of Oxford (Dr. Lowth,) in a pointed and polished epistle, (August 31st, 1765,) defended himself, and attacked the bishop; and, whatsoever might be the merits of an insignificant controversy, his victory was clearly established by the silent confusion of Warburton and his slaves. I too, without any private offence, was ambitious of breaking a lance against the giant's shield; and in the beginning of the year 1770, my Critical Observations on the Sixth Book of the *Æneid* were sent, without my name, to the press. In this short essay, my first English publication, I aimed my strokes against the person and the hypothesis of bishop Warburton. I proved, at least to my own satisfaction, that the antient lawgivers did not invent the mysteries, and that *Æneas* was never invested with the office of lawgiver: that there is not any argument, any circumstance, which can melt a fable into allegory, or remove the scene from the Lake Avernus to the temple of Ceres: that such a wild supposition is equally injurious to the poet and the man; that if Virgil was not initiated he could not, if he were he would not, reveal the secrets of the initiation: that the anathema of Horace (*vetabo qui Cereris sacrum vulgarit, &c.*) at once attests his own ignorance and the innocence of his friend. As the bishop of Gloucester and his party maintained a discreet silence, my critical disquisition was soon lost among the pamphlets of the day; but the public coldness was overbalanced to my feelings by the weighty approbation of the last and best editor of Virgil, professor Heyne of Gottingen, who acquiesces in my confutation, and styles the unknown author, doctus - - - et elegantissimus Britannus. But I cannot resist the temptation of transcribing the favourable judgment of Mr. Hayley, himself a poet and a scholar: "An intricate hypothesis, twisted into a long and laboured chain of quotation and argument, the Dissertation on the Sixth Book of Virgil, remained some time unrefuted. - - - At length, a superior, but anonymous, critic arose, who, in one of the most judicious and spirited essays that our nation has produced, on a point of classical literature, completely overturned this ill-founded edifice, and exposed the arrogance and futility of its assuming architect." He even condescends to justify an acrimony of style, which had been gently blamed by the more unbiassed German, "*Paullo acrius quam velis - - - perstrinxit.*" But I cannot forgive myself the contemptuous treatment of a man who, with all his faults, was entitled to my esteem; and I can less forgive, in a personal

personal attack, the cowardly concealment of my name and character.' Vol. i. p. 136.

It was soon after having tried his strength in these excursions, that Mr. Gibbon commenced the work which has justly given such celebrity to his name, in the *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*. The idea, he says, first presented itself to his mind, as he sat musing amidst the ruins of the Capitol in the year 1764; but it was not until the year 1772, that his retreat from the militia, and the arrangement of his pecuniary concerns, which, on the death of his father, had proved much embarrassed, enabled him to carry his design into execution.

'No sooner was I settled in my house and library, than I undertook the composition of the first volume of my history. At the outset all was dark and doubtful; even the title of the work, the true æra of the decline and fall of the empire, the limits of the introduction, the division of the chapters, and the order of the narrative; and I was often tempted to cast away the labour of seven years. The style of an author should be the image of his mind, but the choice and command of language is the fruit of exercise. Many experiments were made before I could hit the middle tone between a dull chronicle and a rhetorical declamation: three times did I compose the first chapter, and twice the second and third, before I was tolerably satisfied with their effect. In the remainder of the way I advanced with a more equal and easy pace; but the fifteenth and sixteenth chapters have been reduced by three successive revisions, from a large volume to their present size; and they might still be compressed, without any loss of facts or sentiments. An opposite fault may be imputed to the concise and superficial narrative of the first reigns from Commodus to Alexander; a fault of which I have never heard, except from Mr. Hume in his last journey to London. Such an oracle might have been consulted and obeyed with rational devotion; but I was soon disgusted with the modest practice of reading the manuscript to my friends. Of such friends some will praise from politeness, and some will criticise from vanity. The author himself is the best judge of his own performance; no one has so deeply meditated on the subject; no one is so sincerely interested in the event.

'By the friendship of Mr. (now lord) Eliot, who had married my first cousin, I was returned at the general election for the borough of Liskeard. I took my seat at the beginning of the memorable contest between Great Britain and America, and supported, with many a sincere and silent vote, the rights, though not, perhaps, the interest, of the mother country. After a fleeting illusive hope, prudence condemned me to acquiesce in the humble station
of

of a mute. I was not armed by nature and education with the intrepid energy of mind and voice,

Vincentem strepitus, et natum rebus agendis.

Timidity was fortified by pride, and even the success of my pen discouraged the trial of my voice. But I assisted at the debates of a free assembly; I listened to the attack and defence of eloquence and reason; I had a near prospect of the characters, views, and passions of the first men of the age. The cause of government was ably vindicated by lord North, a statesman of spotless integrity, a consummate master of debate, who could wield, with equal dexterity, the arms of reason and of ridicule. He was seated on the treasury-bench between his attorney and solicitor general, the two pillars of the law and state, *magis pares quam similes*; and the minister might indulge in a short slumber, whilst he was upholden on either hand by the majestic sense of Thurlow, and the skilful eloquence of Wedderburne. From the adverse side of the house an ardent and powerful opposition was supported, by the lively declamation of Barré, the legal acuteness of Dunning, the profuse and philosophic fancy of Burke, and the argumentative vehemence of Fox, who in the conduct of a party approved himself equal to the conduct of an empire. By such men every operation of peace and war, every principle of justice or policy, every question of authority and freedom, was attacked and defended; and the subject of the momentous contest was the union or separation of Great Britain and America. The eight sessions that I sat in parliament were a school of civil prudence, the first and most essential virtue of an historian.

‘The volume of my history, which had been somewhat delayed by the novelty and tumult of a first session, was now ready for the press. After the perilous adventure had been declined by my friend Mr. Elmsly, I agreed, upon easy terms, with Mr. Thomas Cadell, a respectable bookseller, and Mr. William Strahan, an eminent printer; and they undertook the care and risk of the publication, which derived more credit from the name of the shop than from that of the author. The last revival of the proofs was submitted to my vigilance; and many blemishes of style, which had been invisible in the manuscript, were discovered and corrected in the printed sheet. So moderate were our hopes, that the original impression had been stinted to five hundred, till the number was doubled by the prophetic taste of Mr. Strahan. During this awful interval I was neither elated by the ambition of fame, nor depressed by the apprehension of contempt. My diligence and accuracy were attested by my own conscience. History is the most popular species of writing, since it can adapt itself to the highest or the lowest capacity. I had chosen an illustrious subject. Rome is familiar to the school-boy and the statesman; and my narrative was deduced from

from the last period of classical reading. I had likewise flattered myself, that an age of light and liberty would receive, without scandal, an inquiry into the human causes of the progress and establishment of Christianity.' Vol. i. p. 145.

The publication of the work was accompanied by the most enthusiastic admiration; the chapters which described the progress and establishments of Christianity were, indeed, exposed to repeated attacks from a number of able pens; but notwithstanding these objectionable passages, the general merit of the work secured for it the public applause; and the name of the author was ranked with that of the most celebrated historians of his country.

' Among the honourable connections which I had formed, I may justly be proud of the friendship of Mr. Wedderburne, at that time attorney general, who now illustrates the title of lord Loughborough, and the office of chief justice of the common pleas. By his strong recommendation, and the favourable disposition of lord North, I was appointed one of the lords commissioners of trade and plantations; and my private income was enlarged by a clear addition of between seven and eight hundred pounds a-year. The fancy of an hostile orator may paint, in the strong colours of ridicule, "the perpetual virtual adjournment, and the unbroken sitting vacation of the board of trade." But it must be allowed that our duty was not intolerably severe, and that I enjoyed many days and weeks of repose, without being called away from my library to the office. My acceptance of a place provoked some of the leaders of opposition, with whom I had lived in habits of intimacy; and I was most unjustly accused of deserting a party, in which I had never insisted.' Vol. i. p. 156.

For three years Mr. Gibbon enjoyed the advantages resulting from this appointment; at the end of that term the board of trade was abolished by Mr. Burke's bill; in the new arrangement between Mr. Fox and lord North, Mr. Gibbon adhered, from gratitude, to the coalition.

' My vote was counted in the day of battle, but I was overlooked in the division of the spoil. There were many claimants more deserving and importunate than myself: the board of trade could not be restored; and, while the list of places was curtailed, the number of candidates was doubled. An easy dismissal to a secure seat at the board of customs or excise was promised on the first vacancy: but the chance was distant and doubtful; nor could I solicit with much ardour an ignoble servitude, which would have robbed me of the most valuable of my studious hours: at the same time the tumult of London, and the attendance on parliament, were grown more irksome; and, without some additional income,

I could not long or prudently maintain the stile of expence to which I was accustomed.' Vol. i. p. 164.

These circumstances determined Mr. Gibbon to retire to Lausanne, a place to which he had been attached from his earliest youth; it was here, in an elegant retirement, that he composed his three last volumes of the *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*. The fourth volume was begun March 1, 1782, and was ended June, 1784. The 5th volume was begun July, 1784, and ended May 1, 1786. The 6th volume was begun May 18, 1786, and ended June 27, 1787.

'It was on the day, or rather night, of the 27th of June, 1787, between the hours of eleven and twelve, that I wrote the last lines of the last page, in a summer-house in my garden. After laying down my pen, I took several turns in a berceau, on covered walk of acacias, which commands a prospect of the country, the lake, and the mountains. The air was temperate, the sky was serene, the silver orb of the moon was reflected from the waters, and all nature was silent. I will not dissemble the first emotions of joy on the recovery of my freedom, and, perhaps, the establishment of my fame. But my pride was soon humbled, and a sober melancholy was spread over my mind, by the idea that I had taken an everlasting leave of an old and agreeable companion, and that whatever might be the future date of my history, the life of the historian must be short and precarious.' Vol. i. p. 170.

But the toil of composition had been beguiled, or the pleasure interrupted, by occasional visits from the most illustrious of his countrymen who travelled through Switzerland. On that of Mr. Fox, Mr. Gibbon dwells with peculiar satisfaction—

'In his tour of Switzerland (September 1788) Mr. Fox gave me two days of free and private society. He seemed to feel, and even to envy, the happiness of my situation; while I admired the powers of a superior man, as they are blended in his attractive character with the softness and simplicity of a child. Perhaps no human being was ever more perfectly exempt from the taint of malevolence, vanity, or falsehood.' Vol. i. p. 168.

The correcting of the press for the last three volumes of his *History*, compelled Mr. Gibbon to visit England for some months in 1788; from this duty he hastened to return to his favourite and delicious retreat, on the banks of the Leman Lake. But the scene was soon changed; and the death of his friend Mr. Deyverdun, whose conversation had been a never-failing source of enjoyment to him, darkened the beauties of the landscape, and cast a gloom over every object; nor was this

this the only disagreeable circumstance to which Mr. Gibbon was exposed in Switzerland. The torrent of the French revolution, in its destructive progress, threatened that country; and the death of lady Sheffield hastened him to England, to console that friend, whose gratitude has given these miscellaneous papers to the world. But his return to his native soil soon exposed to him the real state of his health, which (astounding as it may seem) during twenty-nine years, he appears to have been industrious to have concealed from himself. In 1761, some symptoms of a tumour were submitted to the inspection of Mr. Hawkins, who did not decide whether it was the beginning of a rupture or a hydrocele. Although the disorder continued to increase gradually, yet as Mr. Gibbon never suffered any pain from it, he never mentioned it to any person; but in 1793, the alarming size to which it was grown, compelled him (in his own words) to withdraw the veil; and from consulting several eminent surgeons, it appeared that it was originally a rupture, but that an hydrocele had lately taken place in the same part; some operations were immediately recommended, which afforded him a transient relief; but the disease still pressed upon him, and on the 16th of January, 1794, he closed, at his lodgings in St. James's-street, a life of fifty-four years.

(To be continued.)

2. *Horatii Flacci Opera cum variis Lectionibus, Notis Variorum, et Indice locupletissimo.* 2 Vols. 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Edwards.

FEW writers of antiquity have acquired more universal celebrity than Horace; and none, perhaps, have a juster claim to it. As a lyric poet, he has united the excellence of Anacreon and Pindar. He takes not such wild and irregular flights as 'the Dircean swan,' indeed, but surpasses him in elegance, correctness, and variety*. The festive old bard of Teos, also, though he may still be permitted to hold his superior rank in that particular species of ode which bears his name, must notwithstanding yield in every other respect to Horace; who, to the mirth and jollity of anacreontics, often united, in his amatory odes, the richness of imagination and the chastened glow of passion, that distinguish Ovid, with the plaintive sentiment and melancholy tenderness of Tibullus.

* The famous ode, 'Pindarum quisquis,' &c. in which he celebrates the genius of Pindar, is a convincing proof how near he could approach the sublimity of his great original. REV.

As a moralist, a critic, and satirist, he is allowed to stand without a rival; for, however excellent other writers might have been in these departments of literature, yet we know that their merits, as well as their manner of writing, were entirely distinct from the courtly familiarity, the captivating pleasantry, and refined taste of Horace.

Possessed, therefore, of such varied excellence, his works may justly be considered as one of the choicest treasures of antiquity; and it is no wonder that the labours of the most learned men, from the revival of letters to the present time, should have been so frequently employed in illustrating his beauties, and restoring his text to its original purity.

To collect into one point of view the scattered learning of ages on this favourite classic,—to curtail what was superfluous, and to abridge what was prolix;—on controverted points, to state the various opinions of others, rather than to multiply words;—in short, to reconcile and harmonise what has been already done, and to supply deficiencies by the diligent exercise of sound learning, judgment and taste, was, we conceive, the duty of an editor of the present day, in presenting to the public a variorum edition of Horace, in two ponderous quarto volumes.

How far Dr. Combe has merited this character, the reader will be enabled to judge, when we have informed him what he has professed to do, and given our candid opinion on the ability with which he has executed his task. As the Preface is short, we shall transcribe it. It will give the editor an opportunity of speaking for himself, and furnish a favourable specimen also of his latinity, which (not to cavil at a single word or expression) is neat and elegant.

‘Editiones Flacci, cum notis et animadversionibus, quæ in hoc seculo plurimæ in publicum prodierunt, quamvis et eruditione et ornamentis summis nonnullæ abundant, omnes tamen Variorum observationibus carent. It hac nova editione, si cura adhibeatur ut eæ notæ feligantur, ex variis autoribus, quæ apud doctos judices utilissimæ habentur, sperandum est, me non modo studiosorum commodis haud male consuluisse, sed etiam in elegantiorum hominum bibliothecas aliquid ornamenti contulisse.

‘Quid a me nunc effectum sit, quo Flaccus quam ornatissimus in medium proferatur, eruditi lectores, paucis vos admonitos velim.’

‘Quoniam Baxteri Flaccus, cum notis Gesneri editus, tum apud externos tum nostrates, propter egregiam accuratorem et notas, non mediocrem laudem consecutus est, hujusce editionis contextum, nisi in locis quibusdam, ab incuria typographorum, manifeste pravis, nihil prorsus mutare ausus, pro exemplari adhibui. Notæ ex aliis

auctoribus selectæ, vel ad explicationem vel ad rem criticam pertinent; aliis, in quibus vel de re mythologica vel historica agitur, et quæ ubique sunt in propatulo, omisiss.

‘ Celeberrimi Jani industria non ultra carminum finem hætenus processit; notas autem aliorum interpretum, ad minuendum hunc defectum, optimas et utilissimas depromsi.

‘ Quod ad libros pertinet scriptos, septem, ex iis qui in Museo Britannico asservantur, codices diligenter perlegi; et ad distinguendum singulos libros, ex quibus variæ lectiones colliguntur, his literis A. B. C. D. E. F. G. notavi. Codex manuscriptus E tres priores libros carminum lyricorum, et quatuor odas libri quarti complectitur, et codex G. solummodo epistolas, artem poeticam, et primos sermones novem.

‘ Hæ litteræ, quibus propter brevitatem usus sum, respondent numeris catalogi manuscriptorum Harleianorum, qui appositi sunt; et seculum quo scripti esse creduntur addendum quoque curavi.

A	————	2725	————	sec. — x.
B	————	3534	————	sec. — xii.
C	————	2724	————	sec. — xiii.
D	————	3754	————	sec. — xv.
E	————	2609	————	sec. — xv.
F	————	4862	————	sec. — xv.
G	————	2621	————	sec. — xiii.

‘ Editionem etiam principem Flacci in bibliotheca regia asservatam perlegi, et lectiones varias adnotavi.

‘ Hominis ingrati esset non agnoscere, imo non prædicare urbanitatem, quam in bibliotheca regia expertus sum; nec vero prætereundum est, quanta cum facilitate, omnia, quæ ad libros conferendos utilia sunt, administrantur; utpote per favorem et gratiam regii possessoris nihil abest, quod a studiosis et literatis in hac elegantissima et locupletissima bibliotheca desiderari possit.

‘ Grates etiam curatoribus Musei Britannici habendæ sunt, pro humanitate, qua codices manuscriptos omnes, quibus opus fuit, mihi accommodarunt.

‘ Inter notas quibus hæcce editio instruitur, eas præcipue selegi ex laboribus Bentleii, Cuningamii, Baxteri, Gesneri, Klotzii, Jani, Waddeli, Wakefieldi, et aliorum quos memorare vix necesse est; præsertim eum nomina singulorum, quorum notis usus sum, ad calcem hujusce præmii subjunxi.

‘ Quod ad loca in notis citata spectat, hæc quidem, accurate recognita et collata, sæpenumero castigata, in vestras manus trado.

‘ Indicem vocabulorum omnium copiosum, et aliis præcedentibus locupletiozem adjeci; index enim a Thoma Tretero quondam collectus, ter mille in locis, et ultra, auctus et emendatus est.

‘ Hunc præmio finem hic imponere vellem, sed amici, qui mecum hanc operam inceperat, quique mecum familiariter, dum superstes,

superstes, vixerat, præmatura mors hoc in loco non est prætereunda silentio.

‘Fungamur igitur non inani munere, et merita egregii viri Henrici Homer, consiliorum omnium societate mecum nuper conjunctissimi, in memoriâ revocemus. Fuit illè literarum, artiumque humaniorum scientissimus, vita sanctus, probitatis, fidei, et amicitiarum terax; in prosequendis studiis pertinacissimus, et, dum vires tranebant, labore et vigilia indomitus; nihil tamen gravitati severæ serviebat, intervalla enim negotiorum faceto lepore, ut mos est amicorum, dispungebat jucunditer.

‘Viri tali ingenio, tanta rerum cognitione, qui doctorum studiis se adjutorem præstabat, qui bibliothecis tot ornamenta addidit, quis desiderio sit pudor aut modus? Lugeatis eum mecum omnes, quibuscunque cordi sunt literæ; quibuscunque candor, et fides, et honestas in pretio habentur, lugeatis.

‘O fallacem hominum spem, fragilemque fortunam, et inanes nostras contentiones: quæ in medio spatio sæpe franguntur et corruunt, et ante, in ipso cursu obruuntur, quam portum conspicerè potuerunt.’ P. i.

From this, the public will learn, that Dr. Combe was deprived, by death, of the valuable labours and assistance of the late Mr H. Homer; which ought, in our opinion, to be admitted as some apology for the present publication not being so perfect as it otherwise, perhaps, would have been.

But we hasten to give an account of what these splendid volumes contain, beside the text of the author. The list of writers from whose works the notes are taken, is numerous and respectable. The reader, perhaps, will be gratified with a sight of it in our Journal, as it may furnish no contemptible bibliographical article, relating to so favourite an author as Horace.

‘BARNES. — Josh. Barnesii Edit. Homèri, 2 tom. 4to 1711

‘BAX. — Gul. Baxteri, Edit. Horatii, 8vo 1725

‘BENT. — Ric. Bentleii, Edit. Horatii, 4to 1711

‘BOND. — Joh. Bond, Edit. Horatii, 8vo 1670

‘BOWYER. — Explicationes veterum aliquot auctorum ad finem, Euripidou Ixeliæ, 4to 1763

‘CRUQU. — Jacobi Cruquii Edit. Horatii, 4to 1611

‘CUN. — Alex. Cuningamii animadversiones in Ric. Bentleii notas et emendationes ad Horatium, 12mo 1721

‘DAC. — And. Dacier, Edit. Horatii, 8 tom. 12mo 1709

‘DESP. — Lud. Desprez, Edit. Horatii in usum Delphini, 4to 1691

‘GESN. — Jo. Matt. Gesnèri, Edit. Horatii, 8vo 1772

‘HARE. — Jo. Hare, Epistola Critica, 4to 1726

‘HURD. — R. Hurd, S. T. P. Edit. epistolarum Horatii ad Pisones et Augustum, 3 tom. 12mo 1766

‘JAN. — M. Christ. David Jani, Edit. carminum Horatii, 2 tom. 8vo 1778

‘JAS. DE NOR. — Jason de Noris in epistolam, Q. Horatii, de arte poetica, 8vo 1553

‘KLOTZ. — Chr. Adolph. Klotzii Lectiones Venusinæ, 8vo 1770

‘LAMB. — Dion. Lambini, Edit. Horatii, fol. 1577

‘LIN. — Car. Linne Systema vegetabilium, 8vo 1784

‘————— Systema naturæ, 8vo 1766

‘MURET. — M. Ant. Mureti, Edit. Horatii, 8vo 1561

‘MARKL. — Jer. Markland, Epistola Critica, 8vo 1723

‘PULM. — Theod. Pulmanni, Edit. Horatii, 12mo 1564

‘RUTG. — Jani Rutgerfii Lectiones Venusinæ, 12mo 1699

‘SANAD. — Sanadon, Edit. Horatii, 2 tom. 4to 1728

‘TAYLOR. — Jo. Taylor, de jure civili, anglicæ, 4to 1756

‘TORR. — Lævini Torrentii, Edit. Horatii, 4to 1698

‘WADDEL. — Georgii Waddeli animadversiones in loca quædam Horatii, &c. 12mo 1734

‘WAKE. — Gilberti Wakefield in Horatium observationes criticæ, editæ cum Poematibus suis, partim scriptis partim redditis, 4to 1776

‘————— Sylva Critica, 2 tom. 8vo 1789

‘ZEUN. — Jo. Car. Zeunii, Edit. Horatii, Jo. Matthiæ Gesneri, 8vo 1778.’ p. iv.

But, notwithstanding the copiousness of this list, we are truly surprised at not finding in it the respectable names of Scaliger, Heinsius, and others; and more particularly at not seeing any notice taken of the Elzevir variorum edition of Horace, printed 1670.

We must add, also, that Dr. Combe does not appear to have consulted these authors very diligently, nor to have incorporated their critical emendations and remarks with much care. Waddel, in particular, has proposed many ingenious readings, and some judicious interpretations, that are not at all noticed. Wakefield and Taylor also, though formally mentioned as auxiliaries, have reason to complain of being passed over in silence. Baxter, Bentley, and Gesner, appear to have furnished by far the greater part of the notes in the second volume; but in the first we find more variety.

The preliminary matter, which occupies forty-nine pages, consists of the following particulars.

1. ‘The life of Horace by Suetonius, with a great variety of notes.’

2. ‘Vita

2. 'Vita Horatii in eodem cod. aliter descripta.'—This does not occupy half a page, and was scarcely worth transcribing.

3. 'Vita Horatii in tribus codd. Blaund. aliter descripta.'—Short, and of no value.

4. 'Quinti Horatii vita per annos digesta.'—This life of Horace (which we believe is taken from Janus) is arranged in chronological order, according to the succession of consuls.

Instead of these four lives of Horace, we could have wished to have seen a new one formed from the materials of all, and illustrated by such additional matter as Masson, Dacier, Bentley and others would have furnished.

5. 'De amicis Horatii'—This short biographical catalogue of some of Horace's friends can be of little utility to the reader, since he is regularly introduced to them by the respective commentators, as their names incidentally occur in the poet's writings.

6. The two odes that were some years ago first published from a MS. found in the Vatican.

7. 'Testimonia quædam antiqua de Horatio.'

If Dr. Combe thought it of any consequence to print a collection of testimonia respecting his author, in compliance with the practice of other editors, he surely should not have given the public a scanty one, in such a work as the present: but he has omitted the testimonies, or notices of Martial, Lucan, Aufonius, and others, which he might have found, ready to his hand, in the common edition of Horace in Usum Delphini.

8. 'De undeviginti generibus metrorum Horatii tractatus Aldi Manutii.'—This is a valuable and appropriate accession to the Variorum edition.

9. 'Metra Horatiana.'—This short disquisition is the production of Christopher Wase, and was dedicated to his old school fellow, Ambrose Bonwicke. We extract from it the PASIPHAE, as containing a curious compendium, or synopsis, of the different Metra Horatiana.

'PASIPHAE.

Notæ Marginales. D. Dactylus. S. Spondeus. T. Trocheus.
I. Iambus. J. Ionicus a minori.

D S	1	Filia Solis
D D -	2	Æstuat igne novo;
S D S	3	Et per prata juvencum
S D D	4	Mentem perdita quæritat.
S D D S	5	Non illam thalami pudor arcet,
S D S S D S	6	Non regalis honos, nec magni cura mariti.
T S T -	7	Optat in formam bovis
S I S I -	8	Convertier vultus suos:

SISI.	9	Et Prætidæ dicit beatas,
IISII.	10	Ioque laudat, non quod Isis alta est,
SISISI	11	Sed quod juvenæ cornua in fronte erigit.
SD-DD	12	Siquando miseræ copia suppetit
TSDTT	13	Brachiis ambit fera colla Tauri,
SI-DD	14	Floresque vernos cornibus illigat,
DDTT	15	Oraque jungere quærit ori.
SD-D-DD	16	Audaces animos efficiunt tela Cupidinis
DDTT	17	Illicitisque gaudet
TSD-DDTT	18	Corpus includi stabulis se faciens juven-
		cam.
III	19	Et amoris pudibundi male suavis
DSSDTTTT	20	Obsequitur votis, et procreat, heu nefas!
		bimembrem.
DD-SISI	21	Cæcropides juvenis quem perculit fractum
		manu,
SISIDD-	22	Filo resolvens Gnossæ tristia tæcta domus.

P. xlvj,

Such is the preliminary matter. We come now to consider how Dr. Combe has discharged his duty as an editor, and what claims he fairly has on the public for industry, judgment, and learning, in laying before them this costly variorum edition of Horace. It has been said, that '*a great book is a great evil*;' and that the present must come under the denomination of *great*, no one will be disposed to doubt, when it is considered that the original text may be comprised in a very small pocket volume. But though the present work consists of two large volumes in quarto, yet we are sorry to remark, that some things are omitted which ought to have been there, and that we have found, notwithstanding, throughout the whole, much heavy, uninteresting, and superfluous matter. We believe, indeed, that the eyes of most readers are disgusted, and their patience soon wearied out, on seeing the text of a favorite author swallowed up by notes and conjectural criticism. This is eminently the case with Dr. Combe's book, and often, where there is no difficulty, or, at least, such only as might have been removed in a few words. We shall give one example out of many, of this cumbersome and unnecessary load of comment. On the single word '*genitalis*,' in the invocation to Diana (Carm. Secular. l. 16.) we find six full columns of unsatisfactory comments, emendations, and conjectures, from Bentley, Klotz, &c. while the short note of Desprez, in the Delphin edition (which is more to the purpose than all the others), is passed over without notice.

But as the variorum edition is often unnecessarily tedious without being full or satisfactory, so it is sometimes unpar-

donably

donably brief, where it should have been copious, and, perhaps, diffuse. We offer the following instance as authority for this opinion; premising, however, that we should by no means have given it thus publicly, if it had been founded on one example only.

On the very difficult passage (lib. i. od. iii. 16.)

Quo non arbiter Adriæ

Major, tollere seu ponere vult freta,

Dr. Combe has only the following short remark from Cruquius. ‘*Τίθεσθαι* ad imitationem Græcam, moderari, regere, componere’ But what satisfaction does this afford? In the first place, where is the authority for interpreting *ponere*, *moderari*, *regere*? and, if it means *componere*, we may say, ‘*hic labor, hoc opus est.*’ The context requires, and the particle *seu* sufficiently indicates, that *ponere* must signify an act contrary to *tollere*. If, therefore, it means *componere*, to still, or calm the waves, the question is, how does the same wind produce these two contrary effects? This was a proper field for the editor to expatiate on; and it would not have been difficult to furnish some original conjectures on the subject, which, though not convincing, perhaps, might have had the merit of being ingenious, and even probable. But Dr. Combe has done nothing himself; and the reader is left to his own conjectures on this occasion, without another word on the subject, though Desprez and Scaliger would have furnished at least a column of criticism, that might have been read with pleasure and advantage.

We must farther remark, that, in so expensive a work as the present, the purchaser might reasonably expect to find every thing necessary to elucidate the text of Horace; and we are of opinion that the entire omission of such parts of ancient mythology, history, and geography, as incidentally occur, will be thought a very great defect. We cannot help regretting it the more, as we see so many columns that might have been more profitably filled. For these reasons we feel ourselves obliged to say, that the variorum edition of Horace is, at the same time, strikingly redundant and deficient. We do not however deny, that the notes and prolegomena contain a valuable treasure of critical and philological learning. We complain that it has not been judiciously selected and arranged,—that redundancies have not been retrenched, and that deficiencies have not been supplied.

With regard to the typographical merits of the present work, they must be acknowledged to be great. It is printed on fine wove paper; the type is excellent, and the press-work extremely clear and neat. The margin also is spacious,

and the arrangement such as does the printers much credit. But we are sorry to add, that all these beauties are disgraced by a slovenly negligence and inaccuracy which pervade the whole. The liberal spirit of criticism disdains to stoop to the invidious drudgery of tracing out the omission of commas, and the misplacing of every Greek accent or aspirate; but when we find such pointing as 'Quid enim concurritur:' Vol. ii. p. 1, which spoils the sense,—and, even in the title-page, one blunder and one erratum*; when also, in transcribing, we meet with *quadam* instead of *quædam*, συγκαίνῃ for συγκαίνῃ, p. 329, Vol. ii.—the strange jumble of letters *χραδισπι* for *χρῆσις ἐπι*. ib. p. 409,—*ἀδρῶν* for *ἀνδρῶν*, p. 386, we should justly incur the affectation of candour, and be charged with a dereliction of duty, as impartial historians in the republic of letters, were we to acquit the editor of negligence, however we may be disposed to think him clear of a more disgraceful accusation.

Travels, during the Years 1787, 1788, and 1789. Undertaken more particularly with a View of ascertaining the Cultivation, Wealth, Resources, and National Prosperity of the Kingdom of France. By Arthur Young, Esq. F. R. S. &c. &c. The Second Edition. Vol. II. 4to. 18s. Boards. Richardson. 1794.

WHEN the first volume of these Travels appeared, we bestowed considerable pains in communicating its important contents; (vide Crit. Rev. vol. V. p. 456, and vol. VI. p. 45, New Arr.) In the republication of that volume, Mr. Young has thought proper to retract certain sentiments which implied an approbation of the French revolution; but as that question has no immediate connection with the principal utility of the work, we are unwilling to recur to it, or to doubt the right an author has to change his opinion, if convinced that he has subsequent ground for it. The present volume is a continuation of the Journal-part of the former, enriched with such valuable remarks as may be expected from a gentleman so completely versed in the science and practice of agriculture, as Mr. Young is allowed to be. The chapters which relate to France, contain the following subjects; *Vines—Silk—Cattle—Various Plants—Waste Lands—Coals—Woods*

* The reader will be instantly struck, in the title-page to the first volume, with 'TOMUS PRIMUS. PARS II.' instead of 'PARS I.' and at the bottom, we read '*Profantæ venales.*' Now, as the adjective *venales* can relate to no other word than *opera*, every school-boy knows that it ought to be *venalia*.

— *Economical Practices — Tillage — Manures — and English Farms* established in France. These occupy 142 pages; the rest of the volume contains an agricultural survey, upon the same plan, of part of Italy, Spain, and Majorca.

Referring the reader to the work itself, for the memorandums picked up in the course of the Travels, and which form the *data*, we shall briefly notice some of the remarks offered as the result of Mr. Young's experience.

At the conclusion of the chapter on *Vines*, Mr. Young combats the prevalent opinion in France, that the wine provinces are the poorest, and that the culture of the vine is mischievous to the national interests. His opinion is directly the reverse; and he accounts for it in a dissertation of considerable length. From his minutes, it appears that 'the value of the soil thus employed was probably higher than it could be in any other application, good meadows (valuable for their scarcity) alone excepted: that the produce much exceeds all others; and lastly, that the employment depending upon it is very considerable.' (p. 21.) No land, he maintains, under any other culture would sell at the same price; and with respect to produce, the average of 9/ an acre, on a mean of good and bad years, is such as no other plant will equal, that is cultivated in France, watered lands alone excepted. The poverty which appears in the vine countries, he attributes, not to the nature of the culture, but to the abuse of it, principally to the smallness of the property into which vineyards are usually divided; 'a circumstance carried to such excess, that the misery flowing from it can hardly be imagined by those who are whirled through France in a post-chaise.' On small property, he offers these remarks—

'What an apparent contradiction, that property should be the parent of poverty, yet there is not a clearer or better ascertained fact in the range of modern politics. The only property fit for a poor family, is their cottage, garden, and perhaps grass land enough to yield milk; this needs not of necessity impede their daily labour; if they have more, they are to be classed with farmers, and will have arable fields, which must, in the nature of things, be ill cultivated, and the national interest consequently suffer.' p. 26.

Mr. Young's dislike to small farms, our readers may recollect, has appeared in many of his agricultural publications, and derived considerable strength from what he observed of their effects in France. See *Travels*, vol. i. *passim*.

Of Silk. After some valuable communications on this subject, with which he was furnished by intelligent persons in the country, Mr. Young uses many arguments to prove that the premiums offered by the Society of Arts in London, for mulberries

mulberries and silk in England, is a great but harmless folly, and may mislead a few ingenious speculative people, whose attention, time, and capital, given to productions natural to the climate, would have made twenty times, perhaps an hundred times, the return. We recommend the whole of this chapter to the Society of Arts, before they tender their next list of premiums.

Cattle. Except in Normandy, the Bas Poitou, Limousin, Quercy, and Guienne, there is nothing that attracts notice. There would, in eighteen twentieths of the kingdom, be scarcely any cattle at all, were it not for the practice of ploughing with them. The French practices, which Mr. Young recommends to the notice of the English farmers, are, 1. The Limousin and Quercy methods of fattening, by means of acid food. 2. The practice in Flanders, and in some degree in Quercy, &c. of keeping cows, oxen, and all sorts of cattle, confined in stables the year through. 3. Milking well-fed cows thrice a day, in Normandy.—We have here also a few remarks on horses and hogs. The old custom of feeding hogs, in England, with warm food, is totally discontinued: but Mr. Young thinks it well deserves experiment, whether it would not answer in fattening, and also in the nourishment of sows and pigs.

Various Plants. Almonds, beans, broom, carrots, &c.

Waste Lands. This, without a *pun*, may be expected to be a fertile subject with our author, and he accordingly bestows great attention upon it. The following is part of his *general observations*—

‘ In the preceding notes, mention is often made of great tracts of country, so miserably cultivated, that the whole would, by a good English farmer, be considered as waste. This is particularly the case in Bretagne, Maine, Anjou, Sologne, Bourbonnois, &c.; and it is this circumstance which reduces the general average product of France to so low a pitch, as appears in the chapter which treats of it, notwithstanding the immense tract of twenty-eight millions of rich land, the products of which are, of course, very high. Here then ought to be the great effort of a new system of government in France. The revolution has cost immense sums; and has occasioned a happy defalcation of the revenue, provided it be replaced, wisely and equally, on some object of general consumption, and not on land; but the public burthens of the kingdom are so heavy (proportioned to its consumption and circulation), that every attention should be exerted to increase and improve the contributing income; and this can in no way, and by no methods, be effected so well and so easily, as by spreading improvements over these immense wastes, which are such a disgrace to the old govern-

government. The wastes alone are calculated, in these sheets, at 18,000,000 of English acres; if to these we add the tracts, in the abovementioned provinces, which, though cultivated, are no more productive than wastes, and much of them not of equal profit, we cannot reckon for the whole less than 40,000,000 of acres that are in a waste state; not absolutely unproductive, but which would admit of being rendered four, five, six, and even ten times more so than they are at present. This extent is nearly equal to that of the kingdom of England; whence we may judge of the immense resources to be found in the improvement of the agriculture of France; and the wisdom of the measures of the national assembly ought to be estimated in proportion to their exertions in this respect, rather than in any other. If they give a ready, immediate, and absolute right of inclosure; an exemption from all taxation whatever, for twenty-one years; and, by a wise system of imposts, the future prospect of not being too much burthened; if such be their encouragements, in addition to the great ones already effected, particularly in the abolition of tithes, they may expect to see, in a few years, great undertakings on these desolate tracts. But the policy of a good government will not, in this point, do the whole; it may encourage buildings, inclosures, manuring, and the investment of large capitals; but if these soils be attempted to be cultivated, as they have hitherto always been in France, failure, bankruptcy, and ruin, will be the consequence; and the lands, after a few years, left in a worse state than they are in at present. The government should therefore not omit taking the necessary steps, to have instructions well diffused for the cultivation of these immense tracts of country; not in the spirit of the old system, by printing memoirs, which, if followed, probably would spread more mischief than benefit, but by the exhibition of a farm in each considerable district, under a right management, and in that degree of perfection of culture which is applicable to the practice of all mankind; of the poor farmers as well as of rich ones: every other species of perfection does well enough for gentlemen to commend, but is not adapted for farmers to imitate. One large farm, taken entirely from waste, in Bretagne, another in Anjou, a third in Sologne, a fourth in Bourbonnois, and a fifth in Guienne, would be sufficient. If these farms were cultivated on right practical principles, on those of utterly disregarding corn till the ample support of sheep and cattle (but particularly the former) in winter, by means of green crops, and in summer by grasses, gave such a command and facility of action, that whatever corn was then sown, would, in its produce, be worthy of the soil and climate of France, yielding ten for one on these wastes, instead of five or six for one, the present average of cultivated lands in that kingdom. If this were done, I say, the profit of such improvements would be equally great and durable; the practice exhibited would take deep root in the respective provinces;

and extensive and speedy improvements would be the consequence. By such a policy, the national assembly would prove themselves genuine protectors; the kingdom would flourish; population, which, at present, is a burthen, would be rendered useful, because happy; and the consumption and circulation of these provinces increasing, would give a spur to those of the whole society; the weight of taxes would lessen, as the basis enlarged that supported it:—in a word, every good effect would flow from such undertakings, if properly executed, that can add to the mass of national prosperity; and consequently the most worthy of the attention of an enlightened legislature.' p. 96.

Subjoined, we have a brief but valuable sketch of the right principles on which alone, waste countries can be improved to profit, in France.

Coals. The want of vigour in working the coal mines of France arises from these causes; 1. The price of wood has not risen sufficiently to force this branch of industry; and 2. The want of capital, which affects every thing in that kingdom.

Woods, Forests, Timber, and Planting. On these subjects Mr. Young holds some opinions that are not very common, or popular. He says, 'We have had of late, in England, the same vulgar apprehension of a want of wood, especially for ship-building, which has disgraced France.' The subsequent sentiments we submit to the consideration of our readers—

'The common argument, that is founded on the supposed necessity of a royal navy, I should be sorry to bestow three words upon; for I hold every idea of a great naval force to be founded on very questionable theories. Injurious to other nations in its object, which is that of extending to the most distant parts of the globe the mischievous effects of ambition; and all the horrors that attend the spirit of conquest, when flowing from the worse spirit of foreign commerce. A great navy affords the means of spreading what may to Europe be called a domestic quarrel to the most distant regions of the globe, and involving millions in the ruin of wars, who are in justice as unconcerned in the dispute as they are removed by distance from the natural theatre of it. And whatever commercial necessity, founded upon the worst principles, may be urged in the support of it, yet the expence is so enormous, that no nation, it is now well understood, can be formidable both at land and sea at the same time, without making efforts, that throw our own burthens, by means of debts, on our innocent posterity. Mr. Hume remarks, that the British fleet, in the height of the war of 1740, cost the nation a greater expence than that of the whole military establishment of the Roman empire, under Augustus, while all, that deserved to be called the world, was in obedience

ance to his sceptre; but in the late war, the expence of our fleet amounted to more than the double of what attracted the notice of that agreeable and profound politician, for the naval expence of 1781 arose to 8,603,884l.

‘ The ambition of statesmen is ready at all times to found upon a great commerce the necessity of a great navy to protect it; and the next step is, the supposed necessity of a great commerce to support the great navy; and very fine arrangements, in political œconomy, have been the consequence of this mischievous combination. The delusive dream of colonies was one branch of this curious policy, which cost the nation, as sir John Sinclair has calculated, two hundred and eighty millions! Rather than have incurred such an enormous expence, which our powerful navy absolutely induced, would it not have been better had the nation been without commerce, without colonies, without a navy? The same madness has infested the cabinet of France; a great navy is there also considered as essential, because they have in St. Domingo a great colony; thus one nuisance begets another. The present century has been the period of naval power. It will cease in the next, and then be considered as a system founded on the spirit of commercial rapine.

‘ But whatever necessity there may be for navies, there is none for raising oak to build them, which it is infinitely better to buy than to cultivate. There is no prospect of exhausting the oak of the north, of Bohemia, Silesia, Poland, Hungary, and the territories on the Adriatic, for centuries to come; the price will rise as carriage becomes expensive, but the supply will remain for ages. So long ago as the beginning of the last century, we used fir for building, from the scarcity of oak; and notwithstanding the immense consumption since, the countries that supply it promise to continue that supply for five centuries to come.’ P. 115.

Some economical Practices in France. This chapter consists of scattered minutes, which, as the author observes, being not absolutely useless, may, perhaps, better be thrown together than burnt; for ingenious men sometimes catch hints from a slight mention of practices, and apply them to uses not at first thought of. These principles regard *building, lime, fences, and fish-ponds, &c.*

Tillage and the Implements of Husbandry. Besides numerous minutes, we have here a comparative estimate of the advantage of using horses or oxen. With regard to *implements*, there is nothing in France comparable to those which are seen in every part of England.

Manures. This subject appears to be well understood in many of the French provinces.

English Farm in France. This was attempted by the duke
de

de Liancourt, and considerable progress, had been made in 1792, when the events on the 10th of August compelled the noble owner to renounce all hope of being useful to his country. The mob destroyed what had been completed of this *unique* establishment.

Mr. Young next presents us with his *Notes on the Agriculture of Lombardy*, under four heads, 1. General circumstances of the husbandry. 2. The management of grass lands. 3. The management of arable lands. 4. The encouragement or depression which agriculture receives from various causes. These are again subdivided into the heads *soil, climate, inclosures, farms, &c.* The subject of irrigation is treated at great length. Mr. Young observes, that for want of laws similar to those which take place fully in Piedmont and the Milanese, and partially in the republic of Venice, no such exertions are ever likely to be made in a free country—

‘ We can in England form no navigation, or road, or make any trespass on private property, without the horribly expensive form of an act of parliament; we cannot even inclose our own property, without the same ceremony. Nor is it only the expence of such applications, but the necessity of them generates opposition at every step, and a man must fight his way through country-meetings, through attorneys, agents, counsel, witnesses, and litigation—in a manner odious to every liberal feeling, and at a ruinous expence, before he is at liberty to improve his own estate, without any detriment to others: every idea of such works, therefore, in England, as we have seen common in Lombardy, is visionary and impracticable; and we must continue to view, with eyes of envy and admiration, the noble exertions which have been made and perfected in that country, and which, in truth, very much exceed any thing we have to exhibit in any walk of agriculture in this island.’ P. 184.

Under the head *Cattle*, we have an account of the manufacture of Parmesan cheese, which will probably be new to most of our readers—

‘ The method of making the cheese known in England by the name of Parmesan, because the city of Parma was once the *entrepot* for it, was an object I wished to understand as well as possible. The idea is, that all depends on soil, climate, and irrigation; and the boasted account, that the kings of Spain and Naples, in order to make similar cheese in their territories, at least for their own tables, had procured men of skill from the Milanese for this purpose;—contribute to give a readiness every where in answering questions, as they are all very well persuaded, that such cheese can be made no where else.

‘ In order that I might view the process to the best advantage, the abbate Amoretti conducted me to the dairy in question, belonging to the house of Leti. It is, in the first place, necessary to observe, that the cheeses are made entirely of skimmed milk; that of the preceding evening, mixed with the morning’s milk: the former had stood sixteen or seventeen hours; the latter about six hours. The rennet is formed into balls, and dissolved in the hand in the milk; the preparation is made a secret of, but it is generally known, that the stomach of the calf is dressed with spices and salt. The rennet was put to the milk at twelve o’clock, not in a tub, but in the cauldron or boiler, turned from off the fire-place at ten o’clock; the heat 22 degrees of Reaumur’s thermometer, and common to 24 degrees ($81\frac{3}{4}$ Fahrenheit’s), the atmosphere being at the same time $16\frac{2}{3}$ (70 Fahrenheit’s). In summer, the whole operation is finished by eight in the morning, as the heat fours the milk if in the middle of the day. At one o’clock the cazaro examined the coagulation, and finding it complete, he ordered his sotto cazaro to work it, which he did, with a stick armed with cross wires, as described in *Annals of Agriculture*; this operation is, instead of cutting and breaking the curd, in the manner it is done in England, free from the whey. When he has reduced it to such a fineness of grain as satisfies the cazaro, it is left to subside, till the curd being quite sunk, the whey is nearly clear on the surface; then the cauldron which contains it, is turned back again over the fire-hearth, and a quick fire made, to give it the scald rapidly; a small quantity of finely powdered saffron added, the sotto cazaro stirring it all the time with a wired machine, to keep it from burning; the cazaro examined it, from time to time, between his fingers and thumb, to mark the moment when the right degree of solidity and firmness of grain is attained. The heat was 41 deg. ($124\frac{1}{2}$ Fahrenheit), but it is often 44 ($131\frac{1}{4}$ Fahrenheit). When the cazaro finds it well granulated by the scalding, he orders his deputy to turn it off the fire; and, as soon as a certain degree of subsidence has taken place, empties about three-fourths of the whey, in order the better to command the curd. He then pours three or four gallons of cold water around the bottom of the cauldron, to cool it enough for handling the curd; then he bends himself into the vessel, in a formidable manner, to view it, resting his feet against the tub of whey, and with his hands loosens the curd at bottom, and works it into one mass, should it not be so already, that it may lie conveniently for him to slide the cloth under it, which he does with much apparent dexterity, so as to inclose the whole in one mass; to enable himself to hoist it out the easier, he returns in the whey, and taking out the curd, rests it for ten minutes or a quarter of an hour in a tub to drain. The vat, in the mean time, is prepared in a broad hoop of willow, with a cord round to tighten it, and widens or contracts at pleasure, according to the size of the cheese. Into this

vat the curd is fixed, and the cloth folded over it at top, and tucked in around. This is placed on a table, slightly inclining, to carry off the whey that drains from the cheese: a round plank, three inches thick, shod with iron, like the block-wheel of a barrow, is laid on the cheese, and a stone about thrice the size of a man's head on that, which is all the press used; and there ends the operation. The cheese of the preceding day was in a hoop, without any cloth, and many others salting in different hoops, for thirty or forty days, according to the season,—thirty in summer and forty in winter. When done, they are scraped clean, and after that rubbed and turned in the magazine every day, and rubbed with a little linseed-oil on the coats, to be preserved from insects of all sorts. They are never sold till six months old, and the price 90 liv. the 100 lb of 28 oz.

‘The morning's butter-milk is then added to the whey, and heated, and a stronger acid used, for a fresh coagulation, to make whey-cheese, called here *mascho-pino*. Little ones are kept in wooden cases, in the smoke of the chimney.’ p. 188.

His information respecting the produce of wheat is very copious. This produce varies from five to seven and a half times the seed, generally between five and six. Mr. Young endeavours to account why a plain, the richest in Europe, should be so miserably unproductive in every thing but grass and silk. The predominant cause, he thinks, must be sought for in the small farms occupied either by peasant proprietors, or, what is more general, by metayers. The concluding chapter on Lombardy contains a dissertation and facts respecting the encouragement and depression of agriculture, under the heads, *government, taxation, tithe, commerce, population, prohibitions, and prices of commodities*: but we have extended this article so far, that we can only refer the reader to this chapter, which is none of the least important, and concludes with these reflections—

‘It is worthy of the reader's observation, that the general prices of provisions, and of living, as it may properly be called, have risen, perhaps, as much in Italy, as in any country of Europe; certainly more than in England, as I could shew by many details, if they were consistent with the brevity of a traveller. A fact of so much importance, would admit of many reflections; but I shall observe only, that this sign of national prosperity, (and I believe it to be one), is not at all confined to the countries in the possession of extensive manufactures, and a great trade, since we find it in those that have none.

‘I shall not enlarge upon it, but barely hint, that the possessor of a landed estate in Lombardy, has raised his rents, to the full, as much in the last ten, twenty, thirty, or forty years, as his brother landlord

landlord has in England, who has blessed himself with the notion, that manufactures and commerce have done more for him, than for any other similar class in Europe. It is very common in the English parliament, to hear the deputies of our tradesmen expatiate on what the immense manufactures and commerce of England have done for the landed interest. One fact is worth an hundred assertions: go to the countries that possess neither fabrics nor commerce, and you will find as great a rise perhaps in the same period.'
P. 301.

The account of Spain regards only the vale of Aran. The reader will find some curious minutes, and some useful reflections on the soil, culture, and cattle. For the few circumstances that are given of Majorca, the author was indebted to some Spaniards at Barcelona and Bayonne, who had resided many years in it. They will, at least, serve to point the inquiries of some future traveller. Such, indeed, is the principal use of these Travels. Mr. Young no where professes to have exhausted the subject: but the materials he has collected with indefatigable care and accuracy, will probably lay the foundation in those countries for an improved state of agriculture, and consequently for an improved state of society, by diffusing the blessings of health and industry amongst the many thousands who have hitherto suffered not more by the oppression of their rulers, than by the ignorant prejudices of the established systems of husbandry. In this view these two volumes of Travels possess a real value; while they furnish readers of all descriptions with a fund of entertainment, they present a more complete view of foreign agriculture, than has yet been given to the public in a regular form, or could be procured without consulting whole libraries of foreign agricultural memoirs and journals.

Essays, by a Society of Gentlemen, at Exeter. 8vo. 9s. Boards.
Cadell and Davies. 1796.

ENGLAND has hitherto produced few provincial societies who have communicated their sentiments to the world at large, while numerous philosophical and literary associations, in different cities of France, have published collections which have been regarded and quoted with respect. The Manchester Society led the way in this country: and the present volume, not professedly formed on any preceding model, is no disgraceful follower of their judicious Memoirs. It is difficult to give a general idea of the contents of this work:—it is truly miscellaneous, and might be styled literary and philosophical, were there not pieces of a lighter kind, apparently intended as

jeux d'esprit—the amusements of the moment. In the whole collection, we see marks of cultivated minds; and few men of education will find these essays, with perhaps one or two exceptions, too abstruse for their perusal, or too distant from their own acquisitions, to require the labour of severe study, when they seek only entertainment.

We have always professed ourselves partial to essays, and friendly to collections of this kind. They disseminate knowledge, by their not fatiguing the indolent in the perusal, or abstracting the authors too much from their general avocations. To *us*, they are peculiarly pleasing, for the necessary conciseness prevents idle parade and trifling digressions. If the author of an essay has any subject, his design must soon be evident:—if he has any plan, the reader will readily, within a short compass, comprehend it. Numerous are the works we daily peruse, where the interesting matter might be comprised in a short essay: and we regret that some miscellaneous volume had not been favoured with it. But it is time to attend to the work before us. The Contents we shall transcribe—

‘ I. Address to the society—II. Lines read at the second meeting—III. Vindication of the character of Pindar, with a translation of two odes—IV. Some remarks on the early population of Italy and Europe—V. On some of the more remarkable British monuments in Devon—VI. Historical outlines of falconry—VII. A chronological essay on Ptolemy’s mode of computation—VIII. An essay on the contraction of the Iris, with remarks on muscular contraction—IX. On the mythology and worship of the serpent—X. To the gods of India on the departure of sir John Shore—XI. On literary fame and the historical characters of Shakspeare—XII. Cursory remarks on the present state of philosophy and science—XIII. Of sepulture in general, and sepulchral single stones erect—XIV. On benevolence and friendship, as opposed to principle—XV. Sonnets in blank verse—XVI. An essay on the Aramic character—XVII. Reflections on the composition and decomposition of the atmosphere, as influencing meteorological phenomena—XVIII. An apology for the character and conduct of Iago—XIX. A Venetian story—XX. Ode to Victory—XXI. Some observations on Hesiod and Homer, and the shields of Hercules and Achilles—XXII. On the Valley of Stones and country near Linton—XXIII. On light, particularly on its combination and separation, as a chemical principle—XXIV. Genius of Danmonium. An ode—XXV. Three sonnets—XXVI. An apology for the character and conduct of Shylock.’ p. vii.

In a cautious, concise Preface, we are informed that these Essays were read at the private meetings of a society united by
friendship,

friendship, and published in the order they were offered. Arrangement, it is true, would be of little service; yet, perhaps, had the editors distinguished the philosophical from the literary, and both from the miscellaneous papers, the collection would have been more pleasing. They had high authorities for this mode in the Transactions of these kingdoms, and various volumes of memoirs published on the continent; but perhaps they aimed not so high: to provoke comparison would be injudicious.

In a modest, sensible address, we find the various advantages of well-regulated conversation, joined with occasional compositions, as adapted to minds of different moulds, judiciously discriminated. The first president, whose name, as well as those of the other members, is concealed, seems to lay down a plan, which, however, does not appear to have been closely followed. Voluntary communications, like conversation, must find their own level; to obstruct the course of a stream, would render the pleasing, rippling current, a stagnant lake, at least useless, sometimes injurious.

'The Lines read at a second Meeting,' are of the lighter kind, describing humorously the various associations from the knights of the round table, to the society to which the poet has offered his tribute. The 'honest untainted name,' it seems, belongs chiefly, though not exclusively, to A CLUB—

'Not, that when envy, hate, or interest binds
In some pursuit men's else-discordant minds,
The secret junto can with justice claim,
O Club! thy honest, and untainted name.
No club is theirs, but base association,
Who meet to plan the downfall of a natino.
The Roman band, which Cæsar doom'd to die,
Call not a club, but bold conspiracy.
The Scythian dames, colleagu'd mankind to drub,
Was a most foul cabal, but not a club.
When thieves associate, or banditti join,
Theirs is a gang, no club, nor theme of mine.
That concourse to a different purpose tends;
To festive, friendly, or instructive ends.
To specify them more there's little need;
All here concentrate—therefore I'll proceed.' P. 10.

'A Vindication of the character of Pindar,' with a translation of the eleventh Pythian, and the seventh Isthmian ode, follows. The translations are bold and energetic. The object of the notes is to show that Pindar has been unjustly ac-

cused of being mercenary in the distribution of his praises; and that, from a careful examination of these odes, on which the charge has been founded, the conclusion is by no means supported. We consider this as a very able and judicious essay: and we regret, that, from the unconnected form of notes, perhaps also from their being extended a little too far, it is not in our power to make any advantageous extract.

The third essay is on a subject very extensive, and we cannot excuse the author for his choice.—It is on the early population of Europe, and particularly of Italy. It contains some remarks on the great migration in the early ages to the West, so judiciously explained by Mr. Pinkerton, seemingly with a design to derive the inhabitants of Italy and the adjoining territory from Greece, and the Grecians and their language from Asia. If this was the writer's object, he has not explained it very clearly, or supported it very dextrously. Many of the incidental observations are judicious; and some of the parts, which may perhaps be styled digressive, display an extent of knowledge, and an ardour of investigation. In these the principal object seems occasionally lost: on the whole, however, the essay is entertaining and occasionally interesting. The glance of Celtic manners in the early inhabitants of Italy, is curious, and deserves to be farther extended.

The 'Essay on some of the more remarkable British Monuments in Devon' is illustrated with plates. The monuments described are the Cromiech,—the Loganstone,—the rock-bafon,—and the barrow on Haldown, with the urn found in it. This essay is of the lighter and more pleasing cast, not without marks of genius and classical knowledge. The plates are light tinted etchings, well adapted to the objects they are intended to represent.

'Historical Outlines of Falconry,' follow. These are amusing from the number of quotations from different writers, particularly our early poets; but we do not perceive that they greatly illustrate the author's object. As hawking was an eastern sport, and, as we seemingly enjoyed it when the intervening nations were utterly unacquainted with it, the author thinks that Great Britain must have been peopled from the East. We have heard much of the idle tale of an Armenian origin; and we are sorry to find it has expatiated beyond its first confines. This society, like others of greater note, has not disclaimed adopting, in general, the opinions of individual members; but we trust the infection has not yet been general: and that an Armenian origin, except what is now admitted respecting the principal inhabitants of Europe, will not be heard of, except with the story of prince Madoc and the Trojan Brutus. It is necessary to observe on this subject, that having traced hawking up to the Saxons, the author
makes

makes one bold step farther, and, resting on the shoulders of the equivocal Offian, rises to the Britons. This key-stone of his arch has no greater solidity.

‘A Chronological Essay on Ptolemy’s Mode of Computation’ is a very able and judicious work, but too deep, too elaborate, for general readers. We consider it as a real improvement, as it gives greater solidity to historical investigations. The great object of the author is to show that Ptolemy always ascribes the year of a king’s death to his successor; and with this clue he unravels all the difficulties, and clears all the inconsistencies, which have been imputed to the celebrated canon of the chronologist. The position is not supported by declamation, but by a rigorous computation, in the latter part of the canon, where the obscurity is enlightened by the torch of history. The essay concludes with some short remarks on the canon, to facilitate its use and comprehension, as well as on the Nabonassarean æra, which Ptolemy has adopted.

The following essay we consider also as an addition to the stock, not merely to the bulk of science. It is on the iris—
‘demonstrative of the effects of that membrane on the pupil, with some observations which lead to a new theory of muscular motion.’ The observations on the dilation and contraction of the iris deserve to be more generally known—

‘Fibres appear in the iris in great numbers, and these seem to constitute the whole of that membrane, are of a white colour, are placed in a radiated direction, and terminate in a beautiful circular fringe, which forms the boundary of the pupil.

‘Upon bringing the candle near the eye, we may observe soon after the admission of the light, an alteration taking place in the iris, and the pupil decreases in proportion as the iris increases in breadth.

‘But if the light be removed to a greater distance, the pupil soon increases, owing to the diminution of the breadth of the iris. These motions of the iris do not take place in the same instant that the light is admitted or excluded, for it takes sufficient time to mark the periods by a stop watch. When the pupil is diminished the white fibres of the iris, (which are blood vessels, for they become of a red colour in our subtle injections of the iris, which are coloured with vermilion,) are nearly rectilinear. On the contrary, when the pupil is dilated the white fibres form serpentine lines. These facts being premised, I shall next endeavour to explain the manner in which these curious and important phenomena are effected.

‘I am of opinion that the blood vessels of the retina and choroide coats, the first of which is transparent, are capable of being stimulated by light; or in other words that the light causes a greater derivation of blood to the sanguiferous system of the parts, forming the

internal camera of the eye; and as the blood vessels of the iris and choroide coats arise from the same trunks and anastomose freely together; it follows, that in proportion as more blood is derived to the retina and choroide coats; that the iris will receive less blood during the time that the light passes in great quantities through the pupil, and this will increase the breadth of the iris, by the blood vessels being absolutely shortened, but lengthened in the direction of right lines.

‘On the contrary, when there is less light, the iris will receive a greater quantity of blood, and the vessels of this membrane will form serpentine lines; and although the vessels are absolutely lengthened, yet in the same proportion as they are absolutely lengthened, they are shortened in right lines, the iris is diminished in breadth, and the pupil consequently dilated.’ P. 201.

Muscular motion is supposed to depend on this serpentine effect, on the muscular fibres; for as these fibres, or small arteries, are connected to each other by reticular substance laterally; and as their aræ are increased both in length and diameter, they must be necessarily shortened by distension. In more than one part of this volume, we have regretted that the name of the author is not mentioned. In this essay it is of the greatest importance: for, if the experiments and observations are really those of a man well conversant with his subject, and consequently aware of the many appearances which would mislead the unwary, we should place great dependance on the conclusion. We have examined the essay with particular care, and find many marks of acuteness and knowledge; nor have we much hesitation in attributing it to an able anatomist. The letters subjoined (but these seem sometimes intended to mislead) are J. S.—If they are in any instance initials, we could easily guess at the author.

The ‘Remarks on the Mythology and Worship of the Serpent’ are curious, without any particular novelty. They show the great extent of the serpent worship, and mention the numerous legends connected with it, in very distant countries, and at æras very remote. We perceive the author of this essay leaning to the common idea of deriving the arts, &c. from Egypt; while the author of the paper on the population of Europe seems to lean to the modern opinion of an Asiatic origin.

The ‘Address to the Gods of India on the Departure of Sir John Shore, and Mr. H. Cornish,’ seems a pleasing tribute to friendship. The Indian mythology appears familiar to the poet; and Idra, Rembha, and Carticeya, are not less appropriated to their different offices, than the Æolus, Venus, or Mars of the Grecians. We shall extract a few lines—

‘On

‘ On Meru’s hallowed cliffs which shine
With all the treasures of the mine,
The diamond, and the flaming ore,
Thee mighty Idra, I adore!
The genii of the air enchain,
Oh! every sickly blast restrain,
Let clouds and storms thy bounty prove,
And teem with health for those I love!

‘ Thy faces six—thy eyes of pride,
Twelve-handed Carticeya, hide!
Or over distant regions wield
Thy javelin sharp, and massy shield!
Urge thy pernicious bird afar,
Nor flock my friends with savage war!’ P. 235.

The essay which follows, relates to Shakspeare; but as there are two or three others of a similar nature, these, with the philosophical and remaining essays, we shall consider together in our next number. Indeed the short time since the work has been in our hands, prevents us from going farther. We cannot, however, conclude this article without again expressing a wish that the names may no longer be concealed; though they ‘add no importance to truth,’ they give authenticity to facts; though they do not ‘sanction error,’ they give an additional support to observation. We rest with more confidence on philosophical remarks, when we have reason to believe the author capable of discrimination, and aware of the various errors which may mislead the unwary.

(To be continued.)

Observations on the Seats and Causes of Diseases: illustrated by the Dissections of the late Professor Morgagni of Padua. By James Hamilton, Jun. M. D. Vol. I. 8vo. 6s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1795.

THE labours of the celebrated Morgagni in exploring the seats and causes of disease have been long held in high estimation by practitioners of the healing art, as containing a series of valuable and interesting medical facts. The dissection of dead bodies, for the purpose of ascertaining morbid appearances, if properly connected with the history of symptoms which previously marked the disorders that destroyed the patients, is unquestionably important both in a practical point of view, and as tending to extend the bounds of the science of medicine.

It was by following this useful plan, that the learned and industrious professor of Padua augmented our knowledge of the nature of diseases.

The writings of this accurate observer, in the opinion of our author, are, however, in some parts, incumbered with unnecessary, if not useless details; it is therefore the design of Dr. Hamilton, in the present undertaking, to render them more clear and useful by stripping them of this portion of uninteresting matter.

The principles by which the doctor has been guided in the execution of his plan, are these—

‘ To retain only the facts witnessed by Morgagni, or his preceptor Valsalva, or that seem established on unequivocal authority—to new arrange the whole—to prefix to each collection of cases, a view of the general symptoms, and seat of the disease—and, to add observations on the causes, and remarks on the histories, detailed.’ P. xi.

In fixing upon a proper and suitable arrangement, the editor seems to have had some trouble and difficulty; he has, however, followed that of Macbride, as being most analogous to that of Morgagni, and best adapted to his facts.

Diseases are consequently divided into universal, local, sexual, and infantile.

As a translator, the doctor properly apologises for some liberties that he has taken with the original, such as the omission of dates, names, &c. and the bringing together of detached portions of different histories of cases.

On what respects the illustrations and additions of the editor, the following passage is sufficiently explicit—

‘ The history of the general symptoms of each disease, prefixed to the respective cases, has been compiled with care from such sources as seemed most authentic; and to these proper references are made.

‘ The observations on the causes of diseases, comprehend the most modern opinions; and with these the ideas of Morgagni are occasionally incorporated. In this part of the work the editor has endeavoured to say much in very few words; and on that account has avoided all minute reasoning, and has contented himself with stating only the chief arguments on every subject. Where he has dissented from others, he has expressed himself concisely, and he hopes with becoming diffidence. In treating of the causes of diseases, he has always wished rather to discover the deliberation of a sound judgement, than to display the sportings of a lively imagination. Though by the latter, the ignorant and unwary may be dazzled into admiration; it is upon the former alone, that the experienced and cautious will be inclined to depend.

‘ The remarks he has added to the cases, being confined strictly to the explanation of the respective diseases, are necessarily very short in the volume now offered. In the subsequent part of the
work,

work, references to many of the cases are occasionally made, and additional observations upon them are introduced.' P. xiv.

This is the outline of Doctor Hamilton's plan; but how far modern doctrines and reasonings in medicine can be successfully applied in illustrating and explaining the valuable truths contained in the writings of professor Morgagni, it is not easy to determine. In the present volume Doctor Hamilton only considers fevers and inflammations.

We shall make a few remarks on each, in order to show the manner in which the editor has executed his undertaking. After premising a few observations in explanation of the terms made use of to express the different causes of disease, in which there does not appear to be any thing new, he proceeds to the continued inflammatory fever. The history of the symptoms which denote the presence of this fever is chiefly drawn from the writings of Junker, Lommius, and a few others of the same date. It is tolerably correct, and given with sufficient clearness; but there do not seem to be any additions to what was previously known concerning the disease.

In illustration of the nature of this fever, ten cases, with their dissections, are detailed from Morgagni. From these the doctor concludes, that the existence of inflammatory fever, as he has described it, is fully demonstrated. Those practitioners who have paid particular attention to this subject, will probably not be so fully convinced.

On the proximate cause of fever, Doctor Hamilton has introduced different observations. He thinks 'that the theories respecting the proximate cause of fever, which have lately prevailed, do not explain that of inflammatory fever.'

But though the editor objects to the theories of Boerhaave and Cullen, as being unsatisfactory, he does not appear to have substituted any thing better in their place. The observations or hints which he has subjoined, are neither new nor important: they are in the mouth of every tyro.

On typhus fever, the doctor is more full. The symptoms which characterise this disease, are accurately detailed from Huxham. The yellow fever is also arranged, and perhaps properly, under this head. Its symptoms are minutely described from Warren, Blanc, Rush, and a few other writers on tropical diseases.

It is concluded from the whole of this description—

'That the essential characters of typhus are, impaired energy of the brain, considerable prostration of strength, irregular action of the vascular system, and a deranged state of the chylopoetic viscera. This definition, however, is neither so accurate nor so satisfactory

tory as could be wished; yet it is not easy, nor perhaps in the present imperfect state of physiology possible, to form a better one from the history of the symptoms alone.

‘Typhus therefore differs from synocha in one of the great essential characters; namely, impaired energy of the brain. It differs too in several other particulars respecting the symptoms; as, in being preceded by languor and listlessness, in being attended with a weak pulse, &c. and in being protracted to a longer period.

‘The seat of the disease in typhus has not yet been clearly ascertained. Every part of the system is affected; the powers both of the body and mind are deranged; and it is difficult to determine whether one part be affected before the others, and whether the derangement of one part depend upon or be unconnected with that of others.’ P. 47.

After elucidating the nature of typhus fever by a detail of cases and dissections from Morgagni, which seem to be selected with tolerable judgment, he comes to the causes, on which there seems to be nothing omitted that has been mentioned by modern writers on this complaint. The editor has not, however, extended our knowledge of the nature of this fatal disorder by the addition of any new matter.

Intermittent fevers are considered with equal attention in what respects their history. The dissections of Morgagni here, however, afforded little assistance. They show nothing with regard to the cause of these diseases.

In his observations the doctor is here unusually copious; but though he has presented us with a clear view of what has been done by others, he does not appear to have supplied much new information from his own experience.

The observations on hectic fever extend to a considerable length, without affording much novelty, either in respect to the cause or the nature of the disease.

In the second chapter we come to inflammations. This part is begun by some general observations respecting the causes of the different phænomena of inflammation. The editor states several circumstances which have been noticed by Doctor Smyth, as causing differences with regard to the phænomena of inflammation. The state of the vessels that constitute the disease, he supposes, has a considerable share in changing the appearances of inflammation.

In the editor's remarks on the causes of inflammation, we meet with nothing particularly deserving of notice. The proximate cause has long been involved in difficulty, and Doctor Hamilton has not cleared it away. The opinion of Mr. Latta did not deserve to have been examined with any minuteness.

We shall pass over the accounts of Phrenitis and Cynanche Tonsillaris,

Tonfillar^{is}, in order to insert the editor's remarks on the numerous cases which he has selected from Morgagni, in explanation of the nature of pneumonia. These, with the passages that have been already extracted, will afford a tolerably correct idea of the nature of the work—

‘ In these cases, the various degrees of the several fatal terminations of pneumonic inflammation are very accurately pointed out. Thus, in the first ten cases, inflammation and induration of the substance of the surface of the lungs are exhibited. In the two following ones, the pericardium and pleura investing the ribs had also been inflamed, and the inflammation had there terminated in effusion. From the fourteenth to the twenty-fourth, both inclusive, the various gradations in effusions within the substance of the lungs, from bloody serum to perfect pus, are well marked. The succeeding cases as far as the thirty-eighth, are instances of empyema existing, either simply or combined, with exudation from the surface of the pericardium. Empyema and vomica were joined in the following eight cases. The forty-fifth and forty-sixth, are examples of bloody extravasations within the thorax, and the four last cases seem to shew the progressive stages of gangrene.

‘ The observations already offered respecting the phenomena of inflammation, render it unnecessary to introduce any extended remarks in this place.

‘ The histories of the first ten cases prove; that a degree of inflammation in the lungs, which in many other parts could not be productive of much injury to the system, occasions fatal event.

‘ The induration of the substance of those organs, it has been already alleged, is owing to many of the vessels distributed over the air cells being distended with blood: but it is probable that some other circumstance concurs; for in that state their substance is as compact and heavy as that of the liver, and, like it too, exhibits a smooth shining surface when cut into.

‘ In the first case, although delirium had taken place, there was no inflammation within the cranium.

‘ The seventeenth case affords an instance of the general fatality of acute diseases during pregnancy. Under such circumstances it commonly happens that abortion precedes the fatal event: but this furnishes an exception to the general rule.

‘ Case eighteenth contains the history of a patient who died from pneumonia, which was in the winter of 1738 epidemic at Padua, especially in some convents of nuns. Morgagni seems to hint that the disease was deemed contagious: but he asserts, as a proof of the contrary, not only that it was not communicated to the attendants of the sick, but also that all who were affected had a previous disposition to pneumonic inflammation.

‘ The twenty-fifth case is an example of cynanche terminating in pneumonia.

‘ The symptoms of the thirty-first case resembled so much those of inflammation of the liver, that Valsalva, after considerable hesitation, concluded it to be that disease. He was led to form this conclusion from there being no symptoms distinctly characterising pneumonia, and from the patient constantly pointing with his own hand to the region of the liver as the seat of the pain. It must be allowed that every symptom of hepatitis was present, except the pain in the clavicle or shoulder, which alone in this instance might have shewn that there was no inflammation of the liver. At the same time cases of pneumonia may occur, attended even by this symptom. Fortunately the practice in both cases, being nearly the same, is not very materially influenced by the distinction of the diseases.

‘ In seven cases, viz. the eighth, nineteenth, twenty-fourth, forty-second, forty-third, forty-fifth, and forty-eighth, some of the contents of the abdomen were inflamed. Whether this is to be regarded as an accidental circumstance, or as the consequence of sympathy, remains to be determined.’ p. 319.

After this view of the work, we may observe, that, as a translator, the editor appears to have executed his task with sufficient perspicuity and correctness. In a few instances he has, however, perhaps followed the Latin idiom too closely.

On the utility of the compilation, it is not so easy to form an exact opinion. If, however, it be allowed that the facts recorded in the writings of Morgagni, alone constitute the valuable and useful part of his works, doctor Hamilton’s undertaking must be important, as bringing them into clear and distinct points of view.

There are, however, those, we have no doubt, who consider other parts of the labours of this clinical inquirer as highly interesting; readers of this cast will unquestionably consult the original, regardless of the load of ‘ uninteresting matter ’ with which it may be encumbered. In short, as the histories of particular cases of disease too frequently suggest different conclusions to different observers, it is probably the most safe plan for practitioners to depend upon their own judgment.

Musæ Etonenses: seu Carminum Dolectus nunc primum in lucem editus. 3 Vols. in Two. 8vo. Fine Paper, 1l. 6s. Common, 15s. Pote. 1795.

IN the eleventh of Fitzosborne’s letters, the author, speaking of ‘ every man who sets up for a poet in a dead language,’ remarks, that ‘ to express himself with propriety, he must not only be sure that every *single* word which he uses, is authorised by the best writers; but he must not even venture to throw them out of that particular combination, in which he

he finds them connected; otherwise he may fall into the most barbarous solecisms. To explain my meaning by an instance from modern language: the French words, *arene* and *rive*, are both to be met with in their approved authors; and yet if a foreigner, unacquainted with the niceties of that language, should take the liberty of bringing these two words together, as in the verse—

‘*Sur la rive du fleuve amassant de l’arene,*’

he would be exposed to the ridicule, not only of the critics, but of the most ordinary mechanic in Paris. For the idiom of the French tongue will not admit *sur la rive du fleuve*, but requires the phrase *sur le bord de la riviere*; and they never say, *amasser de l’arene*, but *du sable*. The same observation may be extended to all languages living or dead.’

To this objection the answer is obvious and brief. If these solecisms can be detected, they may be avoided; if it be impossible to detect them, in what respect can they detract from the merit of a composition? *De rebus non apparentibus, et non existentibus, eadem est ratio*, is an undeniable maxim in poetry as well as law. A new combination, not inconsistent with the laws of universal grammar, can be offensive to those only who have been accustomed from earliest childhood to a different mode of expression; and even then it would scarcely excite *ridicule*, except from ‘the most ordinary mechanics.’

In order, therefore, to establish the solidity of the objection, we must suppose the poem recited by necromantic art before a party of old Romans,—a circumstance, we hope, not to be dreaded in this *christian* country. The works of Lucan, Statius, and Claudian, more frequently than those of Vida or Fracastorius, exhibit words, and combinations of words, unauthorized by the writers of the Augustan age. Admitting the thoughts and imagery to be poetical, the versification correct and harmonious, and that the new combinations occasion no obscurity; why then should we peruse a *modern* Latin poem with less pleasure than the poems of Lucan, Statius, or Claudian?—The many who are competently acquainted with the Latin and Greek, but understand no *living* language except their own, will rejoice that they can read the historical compositions of Orosius, and the exquisite effusions of Flaminius, Politian, Strada, and the Jesuits Casimir and Fr. Marsy, without previously waiting the hours ‘of life’s brief day’ in acquiring the Italian, Portuguese, French, and Polish languages. We recollect that when we first read Dobson’s unrivalled translation of the *Paradise Lost*, we transported ourselves, in the enthusiasm of national pride, to the foreign universities, and
conceived

conceived some unfledged Schillen or Klopstock, devouring with

‘ An eager wond’ring and perturb’d delight,’

which would make Virgil and Horace tame and tedious.

The author of Fitzosborne’s Letters adds,—‘ an ordinary genius, indeed, may be humbly contented to pursue words through indexes and dictionaries, and tamely borrow phrases from Horace and Virgil; but could the elevated sense of MILTON have ingloriously submitted to lower the force and majesty of the most exalted and nervous sentiments, to the scanty measure of the Roman dialect?’ Surely never was a more unlucky example cited. In the scanty measure of the Roman dialect, did Milton discipline his Muse, and sing—

‘ Ex chaos et positi late fundamina mundi.’

Ad Patrem.

Scarcely in the *Paradise Lost* do we recollect a finer instance of his ‘ elevated sense,’ and original ‘ all-personifying’ imagination, than in the following Latin iambics, written while he was at the university, in ridicule of the Platonic tenet of pre-existing forms—

‘ Quis ille primus, cujus ex imagine
Natura solers finxit humanum genus,
Æternus, incorruptus, æquævus polo,
Unusque, et universus, exemplar Dei ?
Haud ille Palladis gemellus innubæ
Interna proles insidet menti Jovis ;
Sed quamlibet natura sit communior,
Tamen seorsus extat ad morem unius,
Et (mira !) certo stringitur spatio loci :
Seu sempiternus ille siderum comes
Cœli pererrat ordines decemplicis,
Citimumve terris incolit lunæ globum :
Sive inter animas corpus adituras sedens
Obliviosas torpet ad Lethes aquas :
Sive in remotâ forte terrarum plagâ
Incedit ingens hominis archetypus gigas,
Et diis tremendus erigit celsum caput !’

Surely, without detraction or harshness of censure, we may affirm, that if a version equal to the original were required, Mr. *Melmoth* would find *his* powers of the English language inadequate to the task.

We have made our introductory remarks unusually copious, because we perceive that the contempt with which of late it has been fashionable to treat modern Latin, forms a
part

part in the system of depreciating the general utility of Greek and Roman literature; a system clamorously encouraged by those, whose moral and philosophical whimsies will have the credit of *originality* among us, when we shall have become ignorant that they were reasoned or laughed out of the world some centuries ago. Indeed this endeavour to remove what we deem ill-sounded prejudices, is but an act of justice to the elegant collection before us, which we hesitate not to pronounce highly honourable to that venerable seminary, which, for ages past, has given to the bar, the senate, and the church, their brightest ornaments.

The volumes are introduced by a short and sensible Preface, the following extract from which will preclude the necessity of our pointing out some trifling errors in style or metre—

‘ De hisce ergo poematibus lector ingenuus, pro eo ac merentur, decernat; qui tamen nomendus est, quibuscunque nota [*] præfigitur, quintæ classis esse; reliquæ sextæ, et (nisi quid me fefellerit) omnia ad præpositum missa ludi impetrandi gratiâ, iis tantum exceptis, quæ notâ [†] designantur: omnia certè Etonæ condita fuisse. Neque verò sum ignarus plurima in his carminibus non absolutæ prorsus Latinitatis ab acriori judice fore animadvertenda, quæ tamen emendare sum veritus: inter hæc, voces *satellitium, ausus, cælitus, Maia* pro mense *Maio*, &c.; syllabæ ultimæ ante duo sequentes consonantes correptæ; infinitivum poëticum *ier* in versu elegiaco; syllabæ ultimæ in metro Glyconico non *adiaσpopoi*; dictiones encliticæ *ve* et *que* polysyllabicis adjectæ in fine tertii versûs Alcaici, quod nec semel apud Horatium; præcipuè cùm hanc solam ferè ejus imitator Sarbievius sibi non nisi semel permiserit licentiam: cum aliis quibusdam sunt enumeranda. Pro omnibus quibus benigni lectoris indulgentiam mihi polliceor, cùm reputaverit, omnia hæc esse puerorum scripta, pleraque vel biduo vel breviori temporis spatio confecta, non sine permultis et ludi et studiorum avocationibus; et, licet a præceptoribus leviter fuerint castigata, non ideo facile esse ex illis minutiores quasque mendas exciperi: præsertim cum juvenilis ingenii impetus criticam moram perhorrescat, et, quæ laudis æmulus scripserit, lituris dedecorari ægrè ac molestè ferat.’ Vol. i. p. xi.

Dr. Johnson has somewhere remarked (we believe in his *Life of Barreter*), that from childhood to maturity, men of genius have displayed abilities in due proportion to their future greatness.

As we read through these volumes, we marked down as eminently good, where all were above mediocrity, the poems beginning at pages 1, 26, 52, 66, 74, 80, 82, 95, 102, 114, 131, 164, 175, 253, 255, 299, 323. of the first volume; and the poems beginning at pages 20, 35, 43, 47, 60, 63, 82,

82, 96, 147, 266, 271, 276, of the second volume; and pages 14, 20, 38, of volume the third*; and then, and not till then, turned to the Indexes to acquaint ourselves with the names of the authors, when we were agreeably surprised with finding among the titles, those of Fox, lord North, Harris, sir James Macdonald, Thornton, Joddrell, George Heath, and Lambton. We shall present our readers, led rather by the merit of the compositions than by the greatness of the names, (although as curiosity would be necessarily gratified, this too must be allowed to have some weight) two exercises, the first by lord North, the second by Mr. Fox; the first distinguished by wit and fluency of versification truly Ovidian, the second by the manly and natural tenderness of Tibullus—

‘ Ἀπας ἰδὶον κεντρον ἐχει. A. D. 1748.

‘ Undique purpureis redolentes floribus hortos
 Ut trepidans primo vere pererrat apis;
 Hæc violam jactant loca mollem, his lilia cudent,
 Illa sed Idaliis erubescere rosis;
 Gramina diverso rident distincta colore,
 Quo diversa magis gramina, pulchra magis;
 Floribus et variis variis funduntur odores,
 Et nimia incertam copia lassat apem:
 Sic ubi formosas jactat Britannia nymphas,
 Regia Acidaliâ semper amata Deâ;
 Nescis majores cui mavis dicere laudes,
 Quippe omnes laudem promeruisse suam.
 Pulchra quidem Laura est, necnon et Lydia pulchra;
 Pulchrior, ast aliis pulchrior Aula modis.
 Hæc, en, blanditiis, hæc majestate superbit,
 Illa leves juvenes allicit, illa domat.
 Cygne, tuâ jactat liquidam magis Ælia vocem,
 Ora Chloe plumis candidiora tuis.
 Montana ut pinus, tenuis proceraque Phyllis
 Incedit miseris suspicienda procis.
 Chlora, quidem parva es; sed non tua gloria parva;
 Et viola in pratis roscida serpit humi.
 At non Clarissæ nitido coma defluit auro,
 Non pinxere genas lilia mista rosis.
 Non pars ulla nitet Clarissæ, at tota coruscat;
 Dum coma, dum facies displicet, ipsa placet.
 Unde amor iste tepens in pectore fiat, amator
 Nescit; sed fieri sentit, et emoritur.
 Quisquis eris, durus nimium contemptor amoris,
 Non omni intactum vulnere pectus erit.

* The third volume contains the Greek exercises, and is not more than one fourth of the size of the other volumes.

Spernes fortè quidem Clarissam, at Phyllida amabis;
 Nunquam, dum superest femina, dêerit amor.
 Aut oculis, rosævæ cades nova victima malæ,
 Aut voce, aut nigrâ mox capiere comâ.
 Omnibus haud eadem tribuit Venus arma; sed omnes,
 Ut certo lædant vulnere, munus habent.
 Hoc et juris habent, heu! tela Cupidinis; icû
 Quæque valet vario, quæque sagitta nocet.' Vol. i. p. 1.

‘ VOCAT LABOR ULTIMUS. ’

‘ Poscimus: at, nobis si rite precantibus olim
 Dixeris optatum, Musa, rogata melos;
 Nunc quoque et emerito præsens succurre poetæ;
 Dona ferens adeat sic tua fana cliens.
 Tuque, per Aoniis loca si celebrata Camenis
 Sæpe tuâ erravi, Pegase, vectus ope,
 Decurso prope jam stadio, metamque sub ipsam,
 Ne lassâ infami membra pudore trahas.
 Gentis amore Maro Latium canit: o mihi talis
 Spiritus accedat: non minor urget amor:
 Ut patriæ, (neque enim ingratus natalia rura
 Præposui campis, mater Etona, tuis)
 Ut patriæ carisque sodalibus, ut tibi dicam
 Anglice supremum Quinctilianæ vale.
 Si quid id est, veteres quòd Musa imitata, Latinis
 Luserit aut Graiis, non aliena, modis,
 Omne tuum est; mihi Pieridum de fonte foreruna
 Pura ministeriis contigit unda tuis.
 Tequè precor (levitas olim vesana fidelis
 Respuit oblatam si monitoris opem,
 Acrior aut si me commòrit lingua, meisse
 Moribus aut sanctæ virga ministra meæ)
 Ne tot consumptos tecum feliciter annos
 Infelix animo debeat hora tuo.
 Care vale, valeas et mater Etona, (supremum
 Musæa recinit tristis alumnus ope)
 Prataque, et aëriâ splendentes vertice tûres,
 Silvaque carminibus concelebrata meis;
 Vosque adeò indigenæ quæ rivi in margine Musæ
 Castalias Thamesi posthabuistis aquas,
 Extremum concede mihi, sacra turba, laborem;
 Sic beet emeritum non inhonesta rudis.’ Vol. i. p. 80.

We cannot take our leave of this interesting publication, without pointing out the admirable translation of Lloyd's *Cir* by Joddrell, in the first volume,—a fine imitation of the *La*-*cretian* manner by Hallam,—and an *Ode to Morning* by W. Herbert, in the second volume.

If, however, we could venture to mention any one performance as the most exquisite of the three volumes, we should certainly fix on the following ode, by W. Frere.—It is indeed ‘*Χαρίτων ια, tota merum fal.*’

‘ FUGE SUSPICARI. A. D. 1794.

‘ Ah ! noli, mea vita, Septimille,
 Tuas delicias, tuos amores,
 Constanti innocuam fide puellam,
 (Sit perjura licet procaxque tanquam)
 Crudeli nimis, et nimis superbo
 Daphnem lumine mœstus intueri.
 Quid quòd in lepidâ levis choreâ
 Nûper mille procis petita, cuique
 Arrisi facilis, nec ore tristi
 Molles blanditias severa cepi ?
 Solet cum grege sæpius frequenti
 Versari, pia quæ columba soli
 Sponso basia pleniora libat.
 Ad te, dum choreisque risibusque
 Mens nigrâ tepet expedita curâ,
 Et jocis vacat elegantissque,
 Ad te, mille procis petita, certo
 Impulsu redit, et redibit omnes
 Gaudens servitio suo per annos.
 Sin olim, Styge pestis orta nigrâ,
 Te Suspicio læserit, nigranti
 Felle lurida tristibusque fuccis ;
 Non te mandragoræ papaverumque
 Omnis copia, non latex inertis
 Lethes mente soporifer sub ægrâ
 Lenire, heu ! vigiles queat timores,
 Et iræ stimulum ægrimonîæque.’ Vol. ii. p. 82.

We shall conclude by remarking, that these volumes appear to us valuable, not more for their literary entertainment than for their moral tendency. Such of the writers as have reached the maturer season of life, will doubtless retrace the past, and reflect how far they have made good the fair promises of their spring: and they, who are only now entering on the stage of active life, will labour, that, as they have been equal, in the productions of youth, to the most distinguished characters, they may not be inferior to them in the more arduous exertions of manhood, and verify our favourable auspices, when we class them among those, ‘*qui et olim nominabuntur?*’

Sermons on some of the principal Doctrines of the Christian Religion, with practical Inferences and Improvements. By Edward Stillingfleet, M. A. &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1794.

THE account given of this volume by its author, is as follows—

‘ The following discourses were written for the instruction of a large congregation, to whom the author was minister twenty-five years, and to them they are particularly dedicated.

‘ He endeavoured to set forth the great truths of the gospel to them in the plainest language, that they might be understood by those of inferior stations, as well as by the great and noble among his hearers. He expressed them, as the reader will observe, in scriptural language, as much as might be, and proved them by frequent quotations from the sacred volume, that they who searched the scriptures, might have full conviction of the certainty of those things wherein they had been instructed.

‘ Being persuaded that nothing will so effectually teach “us that denying ungodliness, and worldly lusts, we should live soberly, righteously, and godly in this present world,” as “the grace of God that bringeth salvation,” he thought it his duty to dwell upon these doctrines which are peculiarly Christian, as being most friendly to morality, as well as most conducive to true peace and comfort of mind.’ P. v.

To those who view christianity through the same medium with Mr. Stillingfleet, these discourses cannot fail to be acceptable. The simplicity of his style greatly recommends them, and an unaffected piety breathes through the whole. To give some idea of the preacher’s manner, we subjoin an extract from the sermon on *the Feast of the Christian Passover*—

‘ Inquire and examine further, concerning that which the apostle particularly mentions in the words of the text. Whether you have diligently searched your hearts, to see that there be no “old leaven” of sin cherished there; no “leaven of malice and wickedness?” Do you find that you bear no ill will to your neighbour—to any man; but that you love all, and are ready to do good to all when they stand in need of your help? And can you keep the feast with the “unleavened bread of sincerity and truth?” Doth that God, who knoweth every secret of the heart, know that you sincerely desire to serve and obey him, according to the gospel of Christ?

‘ If your conscience bears you witness that you thus believe in Christ, and are following him in holiness and love; then we say to you, “draw near with faith, and take this holy sacrament to your comfort.”—Take it as a memorial of Christ’s having shed his

blood for you.—He was crucified for you; and would have you come to this feast, that he may sup with you, and you with him.

‘ But what must we say if the contrary to all this be the case?—If you do not so believe in Christ as to obey him? If ye do not put away the leaven of sin, of malice and wickedness, nor desire to serve the Lord in sincerity and truth?—What must we say?—Shall we speak smooth things? We cannot, we dare not. We must tell you plainly that, while this is your state, you cannot keep the feast aright, you can expect no benefit from it; nay it will tend to your condemnation, as it is a profaning Christ’s holy ordinance. We must therefore say to you, in the language of our church, “repent you of your sins, or else come not to that holy table.” Do not presume to take the emblems of Christ crucified into your mouths, when you do not desire to receive Christ into your hearts, that he may crucify the body of sin in you. Such as are in that state can have no interest in Christ, nor are they fit to join in communion with his people, either here or hereafter.

‘ My brethren, let us all judge ourselves, that we be not judged of the Lord. And whereinssoever we have offended against God or man, let us humble ourselves, and seek for mercy and pardon through Jesus Christ; beseeching him to enable us from henceforth to walk before him in newness of life. Let us bear it ever in our minds that we are bought with the price of Christ’s precious blood, and therefore are to glorify God in our bodies, and in our spirits, which are God’s.’ P. 275.

The Life of Lorenzo de' Medici; called the Magnificent. By William Rescoe. (Concluded from p. 70.)

WE resume with pleasure our account of *the Life of Lorenzo*, which (though less distinguished for striking events than some others where the talents of the hero are chiefly military), when considered in the detail by a discerning eye, throws great light on the political features of the times. Lorenzo’s character for address and sagacity was now so well established, that he was looked up to as the arbiter of Italy, and the protector of the smaller states. In the execution of his system, he gave the first decisive instance, says Mr. Rescoe, of that political arrangement, afterwards denominated the balance of power. We shall not follow the historian through the various transactions in which Lorenzo acted as a mediator between the pope and the king of Naples, nor even stop at the pleasing picture which is drawn, at this juncture, of the prosperity of Florence, and the estimation in which Lorenzo was held by the chief sovereigns of Europe, who transacted affairs with him by their ambassadors, as though he had

had been nominally, what he was in fact, the master of Florence; but we shall pass to the seventh chapter, which gives an account of the effects of this prosperity, in the labours of the learned men by which the state of Florence, and indeed Italy in general, was at that time so honourably distinguished.

The studies of the university of Pisa, established by the exertions of Lorenzo, were chiefly restricted to the Latin language; but the pupils, formed under Johannes Argyropylus and his successors, extended the knowledge of the Greek tongue over France, Spain, Germany, and England, from all which countries, numerous students attended the public lectures at Florence. Among these was Linacre, one of the earliest English scholars, who was selected by Lorenzo as the associate of his own children in their studies.—Wherever mankind are strongly interested, they will divide into parties; Politian, the scholar of Argyropylus, and the rival of Chalcondyles, hated the Greeks, and seems to shudder at the recollection when, biaised by the opinion of his tutor, he had undervalued the philosophy of Cicero. The elegant Latinity of Politian, and his fine poetical genius, though surpassed in a succeeding age by Fracastorius and Vida, still draws the attention of scholars. But the greatest service done to literature, was not so much by imitating as by elucidating the works of the ancients. Landino was one of the first scholars who devoted himself to this important task. His editions of Virgil and Horace contributed much to restore the purity of the text. The labours of Politian are numerous; his *Miscellanea* alone afford a sufficient testimony of his critical talents, and the extent and variety of his erudition. Other celebrated scholars undertook to regulate the text of different authors. The first edition of Homer was published in 1448. The Greek classics, partly by the native Greeks, and partly by the Italian scholars, were translated into Latin; and, in short, learning was sedulously provided with those various helps, which render the acquisition of it, in the present day, a matter of comparative facility, though they tend to lessen its dignity and importance. So great, indeed, was the importance of learning at the period we are considering, that the posts of confidence and trust, almost throughout Italy, were filled by eminent scholars. One reason of this was the necessity of an elegant Latin style for diplomatic correspondences. Scala, who was for a course of years chancellor of the republic at Florence, was raised by his literary merit from the lowest origin. Politian and he were friends, till Scala suspected that the former had been desired to revise his dispatches. Their jealousy produced a quarrel, in which, amongst other epithets, Politian, who could call names most classically, styles him *mon-*

serum furfuraceum. In the other governments of Italy, we find—

‘ That offices of the highest trust and confidence were often filled by men who quitted the superintendence of an academy, or the chair of a professor, to transact the affairs of a nation. Alfonso, king of Naples, and Francesco Sforza, contended in liberality with each other to secure the services of Beccatelli. Pontano was the confidential adviser, and frequently the representative to other powers, of Ferdinand, the son of Alfonso. The brothers of the family of Simoneta directed for a considerable time the affairs of Milan. Bernardo Bembo and Francesco Barbaro, maintained the literary no less than the political dignity of the Venetian republic, and left each of them a son who eclipsed the reputation of his father. When eminent talents were not engaged in public services, they were rewarded by the most flattering attention, and often by the pecuniary bounty of illustrious individuals, who relaxed from the fastidiousness of rank, in the company of men of learning, or have left memorials of their regard by their epistolary correspondence.

‘ Nor was it seldom that the characters of the scholar, and of the man of rank, were united in the same person. Of this Giovanni Pico of Mirandula, to whom we have before frequently adverted, is perhaps the most illustrious instance. This accomplished nobleman, of whom many extraordinary circumstances are related, and who certainly exhibited a wonderful example of the powers of the human mind, was born at Mirandula in the year 1463, and was one of the younger children of Giovan-Francesco Pico, prince of Mirandula and Concordia. So quick was his apprehension, so retentive his memory, that we are told a single recital was sufficient to fix in his mind whatever became the object of his attention. After having spent seven years in the most celebrated universities of Italy and France, he arrived at Rome in the twenty-first year of his age, with the reputation of being acquainted with twenty-two different languages. Eager to signalize himself as a disputant, Pico proposed for public debate nine hundred questions, on mathematical, theological, and scholastic subjects, including also inquiries into the most abstruse points of the Hebraic, Chaldaic, and Arabic tongues. This measure, which in its worst light could only be considered as an ebullition of youthful vanity, might, without any great injustice, have been suffered to evaporate in neglect; but the Romish prelates instead of consigning these propositions to their fate, or debating them with the impartiality of philosophers, began to examine them with the suspicious eyes of church men, and selected thirteen of them as heretical. To vindicate himself from this dangerous imputation, Pico composed a Latin treatise of considerable extent, which he is said to have written

ten in the space of twenty days, and which he inscribed to Lorenzo de' Medici, under whose protection he had sheltered himself from persecution at Florence. The character and acquirements of Pico afforded to his contemporaries a subject for the most unbounded panegyric. "He was a man," says Politiano, "or rather a hero, on whom nature had lavished all the endowments both of body and mind; erect and elegant in his person, there was something in his appearance almost divine. Of a perspicacious mind, a wonderful memory, indefatigable in study, distinct and eloquent in speech; it seems doubtful whether he was more conspicuous for his talents or his virtues. Intimately conversant with every department of philosophy, improved and invigorated by the knowledge of various languages, and of every honourable science, it may truly be said, that no commendation is equal to his praise." Vol. ii. p. 90.

The greater part of the works of Pico are however lost; he himself committed to the flames five volumes of Latin poetry. It is not in our power to give even the names of those who distinguished themselves in this splendid period; and even from Mr. Roscoe's account, the reader will rise with a wish that he had extended, or that he may at some future time extend into greater length, his interesting researches.

Returning to the more immediate history of Lorenzo, the author enters into his domestic character, and gives us the pleasing picture of his residence at Fiesole, his favourite country seat, surrounded by his literary friends. His expensive way of living had, however, by this time, embarrassed him with debts, which the state passed an act to discharge. Lorenzo began now to withdraw his money from commerce, and place it on the surer basis of landed property. But the most politic step towards fixing the fortunes of his house, was his connecting it with the church, by procuring for his youngest son Giovanni, at the early age of thirteen, the dignity of cardinal. This was he, afterwards so celebrated under the appellation of Leo the Tenth. It may be presumed, from the known character of the holy see, that so unprecedented an indulgence cost Lorenzo more than compliments; the young cardinal was to remain three years at his studies without assuming his rank, after which he went to Rome to take his place in the college.

An account of the assassination of Galeotto Manfreda, prince of Faenza, is striking, on account of the extreme ferocity of his wife, who not only planned the assassination in her own chamber, but, seeing the contest doubtful, sprung from her bed, and grasping a sword, plunged it into his body with her own hands.

In the ninth chapter we have an interesting account, which

our limits do not permit us to follow in detail, of the progress of the arts from the early efforts of Cimabue and Giotto, to the perfection of Michel Agnolo and Raphael. Lorenzo joined to the most critical taste, and the most ardent desire of possessing the precious remains of antiquity, the most liberal use of them.

‘ With this view he appropriated his gardens, adjacent to the monastery of St. Marco, to the establishment of a school or academy for the study of the antique, and furnished the different buildings and avenues with statues, busts, and other pieces of ancient workmanship. Of these he appointed the sculptor Bertoldo, the favourite pupil of Donatello, but who was then far advanced in years, superintendant. The attention of the higher rank of his fellow-citizens was incited to these pursuits by the example of Lorenzo; that of the lower class, by his liberality. To the latter he not only allowed competent stipends, whilst they attended to their studies, but appointed considerable premiums as the rewards of their proficiency.

‘ To this institution, more than to any other circumstance, we may, without hesitation, ascribe the sudden and astonishing proficiency which, towards the close of the fifteenth century, took place in the arts, and which commencing at Florence, extended itself in concentric circles to the rest of Europe. The gardens of Lorenzo de' Medici are frequently celebrated by the historian of the painters, as the nursery of men of genius; but if they had produced no other artist than Michelagnolo Buonarroti, they would sufficiently have answered the purposes of their founder. It was here that this great man began to imbibe that spirit, which was destined to effect a reformation in the arts, and which he could perhaps have derived from no other source. Of a noble but reduced family, he had been placed by his father, when young, under the tuition of the painter Ghirlandajo, from whom Lorenzo, desirous of promoting his new establishment, requested that he would permit two of his pupils to pursue their studies in his gardens; at the same time expressing his hopes that they would there obtain such instruction, as would not only reflect honour on the institution, but also on themselves and on their country. The students who had the good fortune to be thus selected were Michelagnolo and Francesco Granacci. On the first visit of Michelagnolo, he found in the gardens his future adversary, Torrigiano, who, under the directions of Bertoldo, was modelling figures in clay. Michelagnolo applied himself to the same occupation, and his work soon afterwards attracted the attention of Lorenzo, who, from these early specimens, formed great expectations of his talents. Encouraged by such approbation, he began to cut in marble the head of a Faun, after an antique sculpture, which, though unaccustomed to the chisel, he executed with
such

such skill as to astonish Lorenzo; who, observing that he had made some intentional deviations from the original, and that in particular he had represented the lips smoother, and had shewn the tongue and teeth, remarked to him, with his accustomed jocularly, that he should have remembered that old men seldom exhibit a complete range of teeth. The docile artist, who paid no less respect to the judgment, than to the rank of Lorenzo, was no sooner left to himself than he struck out one of the teeth, giving to the part the appearance of its having been lost by age. On his next visit, Lorenzo was equally delighted with the disposition and the genius of his young pupil, and sending for his father, not only took the son under his particular protection, but made such a provision for the old man, as his age and the circumstances of his numerous family required. From this time till the death of Lorenzo, which included an interval of four years, Michelagnolo constantly resided in the palace of the Medici, and sat at the table of Lorenzo, among his most honoured guests; where, by a commendable regulation, the troublesome distinctions of rank were abolished, and every person took his place in the order of his arrival. Hence the young artist found himself at once associated, on terms of equality, with all that was illustrious and learned in Florence, and formed those connexions and friendships which, if they do not create, are at least necessary to promote and reward superior talents. His leisure hours were passed in contemplating the intaglios, gems, and medals, of which Lorenzo had collected an astonishing number, whence he imbibed that taste for antiquarian researches, which was of essential service to him in his more immediate studies, and which he retained to the close of his life.

‘ Whilst Michelagnolo was thus laying the sure foundation of his future fame, and giving daily proofs of his rapid improvement, he formed an intimacy with Politiano, who resided under the same roof, and who soon became warmly attached to his interests. At his recommendation, Michelagnolo executed a *basso-rilievo* in marble, the subject of which is the battle of the Centaurs. This piece yet ornaments the dwelling of one of his descendants; and, although not wholly finished, displays rather the hand of an experienced master, than that of a pupil. But its highest commendation is, that it stood approved even in the riper judgment of the artist himself; who, although not indulgent to his own productions, did not hesitate, on seeing it some years afterwards, to express his regret that he had not entirely devoted himself to this branch of art. The death of Lorenzo too soon deprived him of his protector. Piero, the son of Lorenzo, continued indeed to shew to him the same marks of kindness which his father had uniformly done; but that prodigality, which so speedily dissipated his authority, his fortune, and his fame, was extended even to his amusements; and the talents of Michelagnolo, under the patronage of Piero, instead of impressing

impressing on brass or on marble, the forms of immortality, were condemned to raise a statue of snow ! Nor was this intercourse of long continuance, for Piero, instead of affording support to others, was soon obliged to seek, in foreign countries, a shelter for himself.

‘ The history of Michelagnolo forms that of all the arts which he professed. In him, sculpture, painting, and architecture seem to have been personified. Born with talents superior to his predecessors, he had also a better fate. Ghiberti, Donatello, Verocchio, were all men of genius, but they lived during the gentile state of the art. The light had now risen, and his young and ardent mind, conversant with the finest forms of antiquity, imbibed, at its genuine source, a relish for their excellence. With the specimens of ancient art, the depositaries of ancient learning were unlocked to him, and of these also he made no inconsiderable use. As a poet he is entitled to rank high amongst his countrymen ; and the triple wreaths of painting, sculpture, and architecture, with which his disciples decorated his tomb, might, without exaggeration, have been interwoven with a fourth.

‘ Of the sculptures of Michelagnolo, some yet remain in an unfinished state, which strikingly display the comprehension of his ideas, and the rapidity of his execution. Such are the busts of Brutus, and the statue of a female figure, in the gallery at Florence. In the latter the chisel has been handled with such boldness, as to induce a connoisseur of our own country to conjecture that it would be necessary, in the finishing, to restore the cavities. Perhaps a more involuntary homage was never paid to genius, than that which was extorted from the sculptor Falconet, who having presumed upon all occasions to censure the style of Michelagnolo, without having had an opportunity of inspecting any of his works, at length obtained a sight of two of his statues, which were brought into France by cardinal Richelieu. *I have seen Michelagnolo, exclaimed the French artist, he is terrific.*’ Vol. ii. p. 201.

The arts of architecture, engraving, mosaic, and engraving on gems, accompanied the other exhibitions of genius ; and Florence became the school of Italy, as Italy was of the world. Lorenzo, however, was not destined to enjoy a length of life equal to its celebrity. He died in the year 1492, at the early age of forty. The circumstances attending his last moments are thus described—

‘ At this interesting period, when the mind of Lorenzo, relieved from the weight of its important concerns, became more sensibly alive to the emotions of friendship, Politiano entered his chamber. Lorenzo no sooner heard his voice, than he called on him to approach, and, raising his languid arms, clasped the hands of Politiano in his own, at the same time stedfastly regarding him with a

placid, and even a cheerful countenance. Deeply affected at this silent, but unequivocal proof of esteem, Politiano could not suppress his feelings, but, turning his head aside, attempted as much as possible to conceal his sobs and his tears. Perceiving his agitation, Lorenzo still continued to grasp his hand, as if intending to speak to him when his passion had subsided, but finding him unable to resist its impulse, he slowly, and as it were unintentionally relaxed his hold, and Politiano, hastening into an inner apartment, flung himself on a bed, and gave way to his grief. Having at length composed himself, he returned into the chamber, when Lorenzo again called to him, and inquired with great kindness why Pico of Mirandula had not once paid him a visit during his sickness. Politiano apologized for his friend, by assuring Lorenzo that he had only been deterred by the apprehension that his presence might be troublesome. "On the contrary," replied Lorenzo, "if his journey from the city be not troublesome to him, I shall rejoice to see him before I take my final leave of you." Pico accordingly came, and seated himself at the side of Lorenzo, whilst Politiano, reclining on the bed, near the knees of his revered benefactor, as if to prevent any extraordinary exertion of his declining voice, prepared for the last time to share in the pleasures of his conversation. After excusing himself to Pico for the task he had imposed upon him, Lorenzo expressed his esteem for him in the most affectionate terms, professing that he should meet his death with more cheerfulness after this last interview. He then changed the subject to more familiar and lively topics, and it was on this occasion that he expressed, not without some degree of jocularly, his wishes that he could have obtained a reprieve, until he could have completed the library destined to the use of his auditors.

' This interview was scarcely terminated, when a visitor of a very different character arrived. This was the haughty and enthusiastic Savonarola, who probably thought, that in the last moments of agitation and of suffering, he might be able to collect materials for his factious purposes. With apparent charity and kindness, the priest exhorted Lorenzo to remain firm in the catholic faith; to which Lorenzo professed his strict adherence. He then required an avowal of his intention, in case of his recovery, to live a virtuous and well-regulated life; to this he also signified his sincere assent. Lastly, he reminded him, that, if needful, he ought to bear his death with fortitude. "With cheerfulness," replied Lorenzo, "if such be the will of God." On his quitting the room, Lorenzo called him back, and, as an unequivocal mark that he harboured in his bosom no resentment against him for the injuries which he had received, requested the priest would bestow upon him his benediction; with which he instantly complied, Lorenzo making the usual responses with a firm and collected voice.' Vol. ii. p. 236.

Lorenzo, after this, embracing his friends, and having received

ceived the last ceremonies of the church, pressing to his lips a magnificent crucifix, calmly expired. Though the death of Lorenzo closes the more immediate subject of the history, Mr. Roscoe gratifies the curiosity of his readers, by giving a free outline of the fortunes of his descendants, and the history of the republic of Florence through the various storms it experienced (amongst which, that raised by the fanatic Savonarola is most interesting), to its losing even that name by the creation of Cosmo, the first duke of Florence, descended from John de Medici, by a brother of the first Cosmo. We cannot resist transcribing the animated conclusion—

‘ Thus terminated the Florentine republic, which had subsisted amidst the agitations of civil commotions, and the shock of external attacks, for upwards of three centuries, and had produced from its circumscribed territory, a greater number of eminent men, than any other country in Europe. This singular pre-eminence is chiefly to be attributed to the nature of its government, which called forth the talents of every rank of citizens, and admitted them without distinction to the chief offices of the state. But the splendor which the Florentines derived from examples of public virtue, and efforts of superlative genius, was frequently tarnished by the sanguinary contests of rival parties. The beneficent genius of Lorenzo de' Medici for a time removed this reproach, and combined a state of high intellectual improvement with the tranquillity of well-ordered government. The various pursuits in which he himself engaged, appear indeed to have been subservient only to the great purpose of humanizing and improving his countrymen. His premature death left the commonwealth without a pilot, and after a long series of agitation, the hapless wreck became a rich and unexpected prize to Cosmo de' Medici. With Cosmo, who afterward assumed the title of grand duke, commences a dynasty of sovereigns, which continued in an uninterrupted succession until the early part of the present century, when the sceptre of Tuscany passed from the imbecile hands of Gaston de' Medici, into the stronger grasp of the family of Austria. During the government of Cosmo, the talents of the Florentines, habituated to great exertions, but suddenly debarred from further interference with the direction of the state, sought out new channels, and displayed themselves in works of genius and of art, which threw a lustre on the sovereign, and gave additional credit to the new establishment; but as those who were born under the republic retired in the course of nature, the energies of the Florentines gradually declined. Under the equalizing hand of despotism, whilst the diffusion of literature was promoted, the exertions of original genius were suppressed. The numerous and illustrious families, whose names had for ages been the glory of the republic, the Soderini, the Strozzi, the Ridolfi, the Rucellai, the Valori, and the Capponi, who had negotiated with monarchs,

monarchs, and operated by their personal characters on the politics of Europe, sunk at once to the uniform level of subjects, and became the subordinate and domestic officers of the ruling family. From this time the history of Florence is the history of the alliances, the negotiations, the virtues, or the vices of its reigning prince; and even towards these the annals of the times furnish but scanty documents. The Florentine historians, as if unwilling to perpetuate the records of their subjugation, have almost invariably closed their labours with the fall of the republic, and the desire of information fortunately terminates where the want of it begins.' Vol. ii. p. 310.

The numerous extracts, which the merit of this work has induced us to select, must have given a sufficient idea of the manner of its execution. The style of Mr. Roscoe is clear, dignified, and elegant, perfectly free from affectation, but perhaps a little too uniformly solemn for the lighter touches of biography. His fine taste and liberal sentiments pervade the whole work; and the care and success with which, unfavoured by any local advantages, he has collected such a number of original documents, demand the grateful acknowledgements of the public. Sometimes, we confess, his honourable zeal for the character of his hero has led him to make use of testimonies in his favour, which his more critical discernment would scarcely have accepted. If we consider the situation which Lorenzo filled, as head of the state, and the acknowledged Mæcenas of all literary men, we cannot but look with a suspicious eye on eulogiums expressed in letters or verses written during his life time, often probably intended to meet his ear, and sometimes even addressed to himself. We must add, that his extreme concern for the moral character of Lorenzo rather leaves us convinced of the purity of his own mind, than of his it is intended to clear. The age was certainly licentious; philosophy had not raised its votaries above the love of vicious pleasure, any more than their urbanity restrained them from occasionally using the most illiberal abuse.

To each volume is subjoined a copious Appendix, containing, poetry of Lorenzo, now first published. Of these there are many very pleasing pieces, amongst which the *Ambrò*, containing a metamorphosis in the Ovidian manner, and much elegant description, is one of the most pleasing. To these are added, letters and poems of Politian, papers relative to the Pazzi conspiracy, with many other letters and pieces in Latin and Italian, some of greater, and some of less importance. We ought not to conclude our account of this work, without noticing that it is ornamented with appropriate engravings, nor without again expressing our satisfaction on being called upon to attend a new and successful candidate in one of the

most elevated walks of literature, and, till of late, in this country, the least frequented.

A Mathematical and Philosophical Dictionary: containing an Explanation of the Terms, and an Account of the several Subjects, comprized under the Heads Mathematics, Astronomy, and Philosophy, both Natural and Experimental: with an historical Account of the Rise, Progress, and present State of these Sciences: also Memoirs of the Lives and Writings of the most eminent Authors, both ancient and modern, who by their Discoveries or Improvements have contributed to the Advancement of them. With many Cuts and Copper-Plates. By Charles Hutton, LL. D. F. R. S. &c. 2 Vols. 4to. 2l. 14s. Boards. Robinsons. 1795.

AMONG the methods usefully pursued since the discovery of the art of printing, to diffuse knowledge more generally among mankind, one greatly to be commended is that employed by our author, namely, to collect together from a vast body of materials, and to arrange methodically, the things of the greatest importance to the class for whom he writes. In vain can the generality of mathematicians expect to pursue a subject through all the books in which it is discussed; the expense for the greater part would be too much, if the labour did not deter them from such an inquiry. But they will all be glad to have the means of ascertaining with ease, what books they should study for any branch of their science; and it is also a subject of meritorious inquiry, to know something of the men to whose industry they are indebted for the advance of knowledge in the world. On these accounts we do not scruple to recommend very strongly, to the mathematical part of our readers, the volumes before us: not that we are insensible to those parts which appear defects to us, nor that we think the work every where answering to the expectations which might be formed from the extensive knowledge and talents of the author; but in general we may say, that there is scarcely a subject in the mathematics, on which the reader will not either gain the fullest information, or be referred to the best authors; and there have been very few men of distinguished note in the mathematical world, whose lives and writings do not form the subject of a very interesting article.

In many places the author intersperses his own particular discoveries; in others he gives us his own analysis; in others he selects from the best materials. In so wide a field it is in vain that we seek for extracts, or we might select the ingenious proof given of the equilibrium on the lever; we might observe how properly, in the account of mills, the rectification lately made in the theory in America is introduced;

introduced; we might take a variety of subjects, in which every idea of importance that has been ever advanced, is produced, and the reader has before him every thing that is necessary to give him complete satisfaction. Yet there are things which might have been omitted, and their omission would have left space for more important articles. Thus the mathematician and philosopher do not, in such a work, look for an account of the festivals of the church, unless some question in chronology is involved in them; and the history of the aberration of the fixed stars, and ærostation, occupies a greater bulk than their comparative merit deserves. Had the history of aberration been shortened, the theory perhaps might have been advantageously enlarged upon. In the aberration of light by reflection or refraction by spherical surfaces, the theory is more incorrect, and we looked in vain for the information we required under the articles *Caustricks* and *Diaustricks*. An instance of improper arrangement, which will be easily corrected, is in the account of Societies, or Academies, which are under three articles, *Academy*, *Royal Society*, *Society*; now as all the societies, though differing in names, are upon a similar plan, it seems natural that they should be found under one head. Under the article *Bridges*, after an ample account of some remarkable ones, chiefly in Britain, the rest, such as bridges of boats, floats, flying bridges, &c. are only named: but the mathematician is interested in the theory of the flying bridges on the Rhine; and the account of these and other bridges might, in another edition of the work, usefully expand this article. The account of the crane is not sufficiently expanded; for so useful an instrument, we should not be referred only to other writers for very material information. Since the common mode of measuring a lunar mountain is given, the correction of it by Herschel should not have been omitted. The article *Calendar* is defective, as the present Jewish calendar, which deserves more praise than the Gregorian, is omitted, and the able explanation of the Hindoo chronology, lately given in the *Transactions* of the several societies, is not noticed under the word *Chronology*. We might mention other things of this kind, which struck us in looking over the work: but in so multifarious a task, it is wonderful that the omissions have not been more numerous; and we are of a disposition rather to be thankful to every author for what he has done, than to censure for what, in our opinions, he may have left undone.

In so laborious a task, it is not to be expected that the compiler will be every where attentive to style; and he may sometimes offend against precision. Such things will escape, as ‘There are an infinite number,’—‘For because the angle is. . .
therefore

therefore their opposite sides are equal.'—'Product is the *factum* of—' Progression is defined; it is then confined to the arithmetical and geometrical, and at the end reference is made to another place, which teaches of more progressions.

In various places the author gives such hints as are calculated to produce reform where it is wanted, or to carry on an institution to a higher state of improvement. Thus, in the account of Academies, he naturally describes one of the utmost importance to the British nation, the Woolwich Academy; we regret that there should be occasion for the remark at the conclusion, and still more, that where the claimants on public generosity have nothing but their merits to plead, their modest addresses must be lost in the crowd of memorials from borough-mongering petitioners.

'We have two royal academies of this kind in England, the expences of which are defrayed by the government; the one at Woolwich, for the artillery and military engineers; and the other at Portsmouth, for the navy. The former was established by his late majesty king George II. by warrants dated April the 30th and November the 18th, 1741, for instructing persons belonging to the military part of the ordnance, in the several branches of mathematics, fortification, &c. proper to qualify them for the service of artillery and the office of engineers. This institution is under the direction of the master-general and board of ordnance for the time being; and at first the lectures of the masters in the academy were attended by the practitioner-engineers, with the officers, serjeants, corporals, and private men of the artillery, besides the cadets. At present however none are educated there but the gentlemen cadets, to the number of 90 or 100, where they receive an education perhaps not to be obtained or purchased for money in any part of the world. The master-general of the ordnance is always captain of the cadets' company, and governor of the academy; under him are a lieutenant-governor, and an inspector of studies. The masters have been gradually increased, from two or three at first, now to the number of twelve, namely, a professor of mathematics, and two other mathematical masters, a professor of fortification, and an assistant, two drawing masters, two French masters, with masters for fencing, dancing, and chemistry. This institution is of the greatest consequence to the state, and it is hardly credible that so important an object should be accomplished at so trifling an expence. It is to be lamented however that the academy is fixed in so unhealthy a situation; that the lecture rooms and cadets' barracks are so small as to be insufficient for the purposes of the institution; and that the salaries of the professors and masters should be so inadequate to their labours, and the benefit of their services.' Vol. i. p. 16.

Our present Royal Society is not spared: and there is, we
8
fear,

fear, too just ground of complaint. The author declares his intentions of giving a history of this body for the last twenty years; in which period some circumstances have occurred, which may, in some measure, be said to have operated a revolution in the society, and to have given a very different complexion to its publications. Whether the writer, in speaking of the society, does not carry matters rather too far, when he says repeatedly, 'this once respectable society,' we leave him to consider; for, though the society is not, in the eyes of men of science and philosophy, so respectable as formerly, yet it does not cease to rank high among its competitors for fame in different parts of the world. That the number of honorary outweighs exceedingly that of scientific members, is certain: and report says that unjustifiable steps are frequently taken to keep out men of science, on account of their political principles. To such a state of the society, the following remark may be justly applied—

‘Indeed this once very respectable society, now consisting of a great proportion of honorary members, who do not usually communicate papers; and many scientific members being discouraged from making their usual communications, by what is deemed the present arbitrary government of the society; the annual volumes have in consequence become of much less importance, both in respect of their bulk and the quality of their contents.’ Vol. ii. p. 399.

We shall observe only, that, if it is true, that rank and fortune confer the greater distinctions in this society, and that men of science are discouraged, the existence of such a body may continue for a long period of years, till, by the gradual wearing out of its first reputation, it becomes an object of just contempt.

Among the lives omitted, are those of Boscovich, Montucla, and Torelli. The omission of the former article we regret the more, as we know not any person so well calculated to estimate with precision the merits of Boscovich, as our author; and though the name of Torelli is little known amongst English mathematicians, who, it must be confessed, are not, in general, much conversant with the writings of foreigners, yet the preparation of the edition of Archimedes, and many other writings, give him the preference to a vast crowd of English writers, who have each their respective niches.

But we will not proceed to point out more defects, from which no work of this kind ever was, or is ever likely to be exempt. We shall repeat only our first recommendation, that it merits a place in the library of every one who is at all engaged in mathematical pursuits.

Traacts on Political and other Subjects, published at various Times. By Joseph Towers, LL. D. and now first collected together, in Three Volumes. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Robinsons. 1796.

DR. Towers has been long known as a political writer, and has maintained the character not only of a zealous advocate for liberty, but of an honest uncorrupted man. A collection of his tracts, therefore, cannot but be acceptable to many readers.

The contents of the first of these volumes are as follows—

I. A vindication of the political principles of Mr. Locke, in answer to the objections of the Rev. Dr. Tucker, Dean of Gloster.

II. A Letter to Doctor Samuel Johnson, occasioned by his late political publications: with an appendix, containing some observations on a pamphlet published by Dr. Shebbeare.

III. Observations on Mr. Hume's History of England.' Vol. i. p. xv.

The treatise of Mr. Locke was attacked by Dr. Tucker on narrow and illiberal principles. Dr. Towers's view of their respective merits may be collected from what follows—

‘Dean Tucker appears to take great delight in giving the most dishonourable view that is possible of the character and manners of our ancestors. “The old English hospitality,” says he, “so much boasted of, and so little understood, was for the most part dedicated to the very purposes of retaining and feeding, in the great halls, numbers of people, to be the general pests of society, and a torment to each other.”

‘This surely is writing in the style of a mere party man, and not like a candid inquirer into truth, or into the real state of antient manners. Many irregularities and disorders were certainly exhibited by our ancestors in the feudal times: but they were not, as might be presumed from the representation of Dr. Tucker, at least for the most part, a mere collection of robbers and barbarians.

‘The Dean takes much pains to shew, that the barons, at the granting of Magna Charta, and other chieftains at different periods, who opposed the tyranny of princes, and endeavoured to procure freedom for themselves, have yet had little inclination to extend it to their dependants. This may be admitted without much difficulty: but it will only prove the necessity of introducing more enlarged principles of liberty, and systems of government better adapted to secure the common rights of mankind, than have generally prevailed: and this is the very purpose for the promotion of which Mr. Locke's treatise concerning civil government was written.

‘As to the Dean's own system of government, for a system he calls it, it seems so unworthy of that name, that one is somewhat astonished, that even he himself should suppose it to be deserving
of

of that appellation. He styles it a "system of his own;" but I confess, that I can find very little in this system, excepting his *Quasi Contract*, some observations on those propensities in human nature that are supposed to lead men to society and civil government, and some proposed regulations about the qualifications of candidates, and of voters for members of parliament; which certainly make but a very meagre system of government, to say the best of it. Those observations contained in it which are new, are of little value; and those which are just, are not new, nor inconsistent with the system of Mr. Locke. The maxims of government, laid down by that celebrated writer, are calculated to promote the most important interests of human nature: but Dean Tucker's "True Basis of Civil Government" comprehends little but partial and local regulations, excepting some concessions, in which are included a few of the ideas and sentiments of Mr. Locke. The Dean has endeavoured to found his system upon "those principles in human nature, which may serve as a basis for any species of civil government to stand upon." Mr. Locke had certainly very different views. He intended, by his *Treatise on Government*, to recommend those maxims of civil policy only, which should be consonant to reason and to justice, and favourable to general freedom, and to general happiness.' Vol. i. p. 86.

There is much perspicuity and good sense in this tract. Dr. Towers gives a just opinion of Dr. Tucker's performance in comparison of Locke's, in the following terms—

'The civility and decency, with which Dr. Tucker thinks proper to treat Mr. Locke, and his followers, are not unworthy the attention of the readers of his performance. Of the "Lockians," as he quaintly terms the followers of Mr. Locke, he speaks with such a variety of reproach, as he may possibly imagine does some credit to his invention. The opinions of Mr. Locke himself he compliments with the appellations of "idle notions," "strange notions," "extravagant notions," "dreadful notions," "absurd doctrines," and "wild and visionary plans;" and various other similar and equally elegant flowers of speech; and he says, that his system is "one of the most mischievous, as well as ridiculous schemes, that ever disgraced the reasoning faculties of human nature." But surely there is no ordinary degree of arrogance, in this mode of treating so truly respectable a writer as Mr. Locke. The Dean would, perhaps, not be perfectly pleased, if it were said of his book, that it is one of the most absurd performances "that ever disgraced the reasoning faculties of human nature:" and yet this might certainly be said of it with abundantly more truth, than this, or any thing similar, can be said of the work, or of the sentiments, of Mr. Locke.' Vol. i. p. 98.

Dr. Towers, in perfect consistence with his principles, next takes another learned doctor in hand, Dr. Samuel Johnson, who, though ever to be admired for his talents, has incurred some censure for what has been considered as an inconsistency in conduct; not because he received a pension, but because, in consequence of that pension, he allowed himself to be employed at the devotion of the ministry, as may be seen in his 'False Alarm,' in his 'Thoughts on the Transactions respecting Falkland's Island,' and the 'Patriot,' compared with 'London, a Satire, in Imitation of the Third Satire of Juvenal.' Dr. Towers pursues Dr. Johnson through these publications with considerable spirit, and closes his tract in the following manner—

'It is a misfortune which has attended your political writings, that they have degraded your own character, without rendering much service to those by whom you were employed. I believe no writer of your abilities ever engaged in politics, whose productions were of so little effect, and so unprofitable to his patrons. And you may in many respects be considered as a memorable instance of human weakness. For though you have given evidences of great force of genius, you have at the same time discovered such little prejudices, and such bigotted attachments, as would have disgraced a common understanding.

'You will probably, with that haughtiness which is natural to you, but which even your best friends must acknowledge to be a considerable flaw in your character, affect to disregard whatever can be offered against your conduct, or your writings. But should you ever again really be influenced by those principles of virtue, which you have so forcibly inculcated on others, you will regret, that your time has been misemployed in the vindication of measures, which should have excited the indignation of every honest man. I would, however, with you to remember, should you again address the public under the character of a political writer, that luxuriance of imagination, or energy of language, will ill compensate for the want of candour, of justice, and of truth. And I shall only add, that should I hereafter be disposed to read, as I heretofore have done, the most excellent of all your performances, *The Rambler*, the pleasure which I have been accustomed to find in it will be much diminished by the reflection, that the writer of so moral, so elegant, and so valuable a work, was capable of prostituting his talents in such productions, as the *False Alarm*, the *Thoughts on the Transactions respecting Falkland's Islands*, and the *Patriot*.'
Vol. i. p. 206.

In an Appendix, Dr. Towers attacks Dr. Shebbeare, who, (to use Dr. Towers's words) in compliance to his patrons, degraded the characters of king William and queen Mary, traduced

duced the revolution, and the most illustrious patriots of the last age, and poured out the most scurrilous abuse on the Protestant Dissenters.

The third tract of Dr. Towers is entitled, 'Observations on Mr. Hume's History of England.' This work was also engaged in by Bishop Hurd. Dr. Towers's observations are pertinent, and will be read with pleasure by such as admire the composition of Mr. Hume, but disapprove of some of his principles. Dr. Towers speaks in his Preface as follows—

'The writer of the following observations on the works of a late celebrated author, regrets that his death happened before their publication. He apprehends, however, that this circumstance is not of such a nature, as to preclude their being printed. The merit of Mr. Hume's history, as a fine composition, will make it long read, whatever may be its deficiencies in other respects; and it is, therefore, of some consequence, that a just idea should be formed of it. And as no man supposes, that there is any impropriety in criticising the works of Addison, of Pope, or of Milton, there can be no just reason for objecting to a criticism on a work of Mr. Hume, though his death be of a more recent date. Whatever respect may be due to the memory of a departed genius, a much greater is due to the interests of truth; nor can the proper instruction be derived from an historical composition, unless we are acquainted with the views of the writer, and with the degree of credit that is due to his narrations.' Vol. i. p. 235.

In the second volume Dr. Towers lays before his readers the following subjects—

'IV. Observations on the rights and duty of juries, in trials for libels: together with remarks on the origin and nature of the law of libels.

'V. A letter to the Rev. Dr. Nowell, principal of St. Mary Hall, king's professor of modern history, &c. occasioned by his very extraordinary sermon, preached before the house of commons, on the 30th of January, 1772.

'VI. An examination into the nature and evidence of the charges brought against lord William Russell and Algernon Sydney, by sir John Dalrymple, bart. in his Memoirs of Great Britain.

'VII. A dialogue between two gentlemen, concerning the late application to parliament, for relief in the matter of subscription to the thirty-nine articles and liturgy of the church of England.

'VIII. A review of the genuine doctrines of christianity.

'IX. An oration delivered at the interment of the Rev. Caleb Fleming, D. D. July, 29, 1779.' Vol. ii. p. iii.

Of these tracts the most important is 'Observations on the Rights and Duty of Juries,' &c. which is a very useful and

excellent performance. An opinion of the contents of this pamphlet may be collected from the following words of Dr. Towers—

‘ The writer of the following observations not being a lawyer by profession, some apology may seem necessary, for his attempting to write upon a subject, which may be thought more peculiarly the province of the professors of the law. But it is a subject, as he conceives, of great importance to the general interests of liberty, a subject in which every Englishman is concerned, and in which some of the gentlemen of the long robe, from the habits of their profession, and from their connexions and future prospects, are, perhaps, not perfectly impartial. It is, however, a subject, which should be generally understood by men of all ranks, and especially by those who are liable to serve on juries; for the liberty of the press is essentially connected with it, and with that liberty every other branch of public freedom.

‘ As the writer of these observations has read most of the pieces that have been published relative to the law of libels, and perused almost every trial of this kind that has been published, he is not unacquainted with the language of the law upon that subject, and could have expressed himself with a greater conformity to the technical phrases of that profession. But as he writes not for lawyers, but chiefly for men of other professions and employments, he thought it best to make use of language that should be generally intelligible. Every man, who is liable to serve on a jury, should endeavour, as far as his other avocations will admit, to make himself acquainted with the duties of that important office: and it is not possible for this knowledge to be too generally disseminated.’ Vol. ii. p. iii.

The following observations we leave with our readers, as important—

‘ English juries have been in possession, time immemorial, of the right of giving a general verdict, of determining both the law and the fact, in every criminal case, brought before them. They have exercised this right in innumerable instances. And there is no case in which it is more important to the security of the subject, that they should continue to exercise this right, than in the case of libels. But on this subject some of the gentlemen of the law, probably from prudential considerations, seem to have been unwilling to speak out clearly and explicitly; and others of them have appeared too ready to imbibe prejudices against the institution and the rights of juries. From whence this has arisen, it is not necessary here to inquire: but it may be observed, that every barrister may have some hopes of being a judge; and may, therefore, not feel any violent repugnance to the extension of the power of a judge. Somewhat of professional pride may also make them unwilling to acknowledge, that common jurymen are capable of determining what they call a point

point of law. But the truth is, that it requires very little knowledge of law, to form a judgment of the design and tendency of such books or papers, as are brought into our courts of law under the denomination of libels. They are generally addressed to men of all professions, and such of them as can be understood only by lawyers, are not very likely to produce tumults or insurrections.' Vol. ii. p. 40.

The third volume contains the following articles—

'X. Thoughts on the commencement of a new parliament: with an appendix, containing remarks on the letter of the right hon. Edmund Burke, on the revolution in France.

'XI. A dialogue between an associator and a well-informed Englishman, on the grounds of the late associations, and the commencement of a war with France.

'XII. Remarks on the conduct, principles, and publications, of the association at the Crown and Anchor, in the Strand, for preserving liberty and property against republicans and levellers.

'XIII. An essay on the life, character, and writings, of Dr. Samuel Johnson.' Vol. iii. p. iii.

Of Dr. Towers's Tracts we have before given our opinion at large, when appearing as distinct publications. It will not therefore be expected of us to go into so minute an examination of them, as their merits may seem to require; we only, therefore, say of them, that they are distinguished by a clear and forcible, rather than a brilliant style; that the doctor's observations are rather direct and pointed, than moralising or sententious: his subjects are, for the most part, popular and interesting; and he treats them commonly in an earnest, popular, and interesting manner.

Medical Histories and Reflections. By John Ferriar, M.D. Physician to the Manchester Infirmary, Dispensary, Lunatic Hospital, and Asylum. Vol. II. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1795.

WE had occasion to speak of Dr. Ferriar as an able and intelligent medical inquirer, in our account of the first volume of *Medical Histories and Reflections**; and we have not found any reason for thinking less favourably of him in the present instance. The objects of research are equally important, the mode of investigation in every respect the

* See Crit. Rev. Vol. XI. New Arr. p. 388.

same, the ability displayed in the execution by no means inferior.

Some of the conclusions, however, strike us as different from those which we should have drawn from the same data. This is not, indeed, very extraordinary, since facts frequently appear to warrant different conclusions, according to the point of view in which they are considered.

The subjects of inquiry are 'Conversion of Diseases, insanity, Remedies of Dropsy, Prevention of Fevers, Dilatation of the Heart, and Effects of Pneumatic Medicine.'

On each of these heads we meet with judicious observations. The first may indeed be considered almost as a new subject of inquiry; at least we do not recollect any thing of importance to have been attempted in this way of late years. The investigation is therefore of greater consequence to the practitioner; and Dr. Ferriar has managed it, so far as he has gone, in a manner that cannot displease him. The author's definition of 'Conversion,' is tolerably correct. It is this—

'A disease is said to be converted, when new symptoms arise in its progress, which require a different designation, and which either put a period to the original disorder, or combining with it, alter the physician's views respecting the prognostics, or the method of cure.'

P. 1.

The most obvious instances of this kind are in the conversion of intermittents into continued fevers or obstructions of the viscera; of hæmoptoe into phthisis; of jaundice into dropsy. There are others which are much less evident, though equally deserving of attention. The whole are, however, arranged under these heads—

'1. The supervening disease may be produced by the remote causes of the original disorder; in this case, the action of those causes, after producing its first effect, is prolonged so as to excite a new train of symptoms. 2. The supervening disease may arise from the excess, or combination of the symptoms of the original complaint. 3. The state of the habit, produced by the first disease, may give rise to a new disorder. 4. Conversions may happen, from the imprudent suppression of habitual diseases. Anomalous cases may occur from the coincidence of independent diseases, or from the mixture of two or more of these sources of conversion.' P. 4.

This mode of classification is sufficiently exact, and proper so far as it extends; but it seems to be hardly comprehensive enough to include the whole of the cases that may be met with.

The reflections of Dr. Ferriar on the different causes of conversion are judicious, and display considerable knowledge of

of the subject. We have reason to believe that the conversion of mild synochus, or typhus, to inflammation of the peritoneum, or villous coat of the intestines, may frequently depend on the action of the remote causes of fever; but we suspect Dr. Ferriar to be mistaken in concluding that a high degree of inflammatory action is compatible with that condition of the system in which *petechiæ* are present.

Speaking of cases of hysterical conversions belonging to the first head, which are indeed extremely puzzling to practitioners, the doctor introduces these very pertinent remarks—

‘ We are ignorant by what laws the body possesses a power of representing the most hazardous disorders, without incurring danger; of counterfeiting the greatest derangement in the circulating system, without materially altering its movements; of producing madness, conscious of its extravagancies, and of increasing the acuteness of sensation, by oppressing the common sensorium. In hysterical affections, all these appearances are excited, which are incompatible with the reasonings of every system-maker, who has yet endeavoured to explain the inexplicable. Nature, as if in ridicule of the attempts to unmask her, has in this class of diseases, reconciled contradictions, and realized improbabilities, with a mysterious versatility, which inspires the true philosopher with diffidence, and reduces the systematic to despair.’ P. 12.

The second head is an extremely comprehensive one; but the author has, with much propriety, confined his remarks only to such cases as he has had an opportunity of examining himself. The practical observations contained in this part of the paper are drawn with judgment and discrimination. As a proof of this remark, we may insert the following passage, though there are many others equally to the purpose—

‘ Dyspeptic symptoms are often produced, in the incipient state of pulmonary consumption, and subsist for a considerable time, before any affection of the lungs is indicated, inasmuch that a conversion appears to happen, of dyspepsia to phthisis. I believe the affection of the stomach, in such cases, is sympathetic, and affords one of the most intricate examples of masked disease. The origin of this fallacious dyspepsia may be suspected, when there appears more languor than real debility, connected with indigestion, and frequent vomiting of small quantities of pure bile; when the patient is often liable to torpid oppression, chiefly when the stomach is empty, and when, upon the return of his vivacity, his faculties appear rapidly and considerably improved. There is also great impatience of scenes to which he has been accustomed, and a kind of appetite for travelling. In the mean time, the body wastes, and a short cough, which was almost unheeded at first, becomes more and more troublesome. The expectoration, which appears to consist

sist of nothing but mucus, and from its facility, resembles the spitting familiar to hypochondriacs, encreases gradually in quantity. In this state, I have found the patient liable to violent circumscribed pain in the bowels, a little higher, but more forward than the spine of the ileon.' p. 26.

On the third head the doctor is more full. The explanation of the cause of congestion, in continued fever, is, we believe, pretty exact. Glandular suppurations occurring at the decline of fevers, are certainly not always critical, as supposed by the more ancient medical writers; but we think it a position confirmed by much experience, that they are frequently so. Dr. Ferriar is, however, right in concluding that the remedies directed against the fever should not be discontinued on their account.

How far general bleeding may be practised with safety and advantage in cases of congestion in the brain, 'immediately after the expiration of typhus,' we cannot, from any experience which we have had, fully determine. But from there being generally a degree of local inflammation in such cases, we should apprehend that it might be successfully employed. And indeed the case related by the doctor is exactly in point; but a solitary case is not sufficient. Topical bleeding, however, when carried to some extent, will probably, in most cases, be found fully sufficient.

The conversions of typhus fevers into dropsies, in particular seasons would seem to depend upon the operation of some more general cause than that of congestion in the system of the *vena portarum*, as supposed by our author.

In pursuing this part of his inquiry, the author presents us with many interesting and curious facts, as well as much useful and pertinent reasoning upon them; he also places before the practitioner, we think, in a somewhat new manner, various rules and cautions by which his conduct may be advantageously directed.

The observations contained in the concluding passage of the paper are too curious to be passed over—

'As it appears, that many conversions are processes, instituted by nature for the cure of diseases, and that some of the most active remedies operate in a similar manner, we may not only improve the history of diseases, but the practice of medicine, by paying closer attention to the connection, and operation of disorders upon each other. With this view of the subject, the most complicated cases will admit an instructive developement, and every additional fact may find an useful place.

'In pursuing this train of observation, we may be confident,
that

that we are really following the order of nature, and that the result will be, not an arbitrary system, but an accession of solid, and applicable knowledge. Thus a foundation may be laid, for a natural arrangement of diseases, and a just theory of the sanative motions of the human system; splendid objects for the ambition of another age, to which we can only hope to contribute a few materials!

‘ Thus a check may be given, also, to the unprofitable custom of publishing single cases, which, some rare instances excepted, are of little more public utility, than the moral tales of a monthly magazine.’ P. 79.

On a matter so interesting, and where little more has yet been accomplished than merely the forming of an outline, we hope the author, whose acuteness of observation and peculiar turn of thought qualify him for the undertaking, will not neglect the opportunities which may be afforded by a large hospital and extensive practice, to fill up and render complete so important a department of medical science.

The second paper, ‘ On Insanity,’ is also important. Madness is, however, a subject of considerable difficulty; and on the causes and symptoms of which, the utmost energy of the human mind has frequently been employed to little purpose.

‘ Before a comprehensive view of this subject can be obtained, it will be necessary for those who are accustomed to see insane persons, to communicate the result of their observations simply, according to the impression they receive, without referring to a system, or hoping for one. To this must be added frequent inspections of the dead, which continually present so many unexpected appearances, and render our views in prognostics at once extensive and cautious.’ P. 84.

On this plan the doctor proceeds; and his facts, though detached, are certainly valuable.

False perception, and its consequent confusion of ideas, he says, are constantly evident in cases of mania. In different cases, the confusion of thought may be traced in all its degrees, from a want of the common power of concluding, to an inability of completing a single sentence. Some instances, he thinks, would also lead us to suppose that the disease consisted ‘ in incitation, and as it were inflammation of thought,’ the mind not being allowed leisure to form any judgment concerning the ideas presented to it. In other cases past ideas are recollected with great exactness.

The opposite state to that of a false perception, is an intensity of idea. This is what constitutes melancholy.

Our knowledge is not much extended by the reasonings on these different states; we have indeed ingenuity, though but little novelty of remark.

Nor has dissection thrown much light upon this obscure and involved disease. The examination of the heads of melancholic patients has indeed shown to our author that congestion in the brain, and effusions of water into the ventricles, do take place. It did not do much more in the hands of Morgagni or Dr. Foart Simmons.

No certain connection has yet been traced between the phenomena of the disease, and the appearances which present themselves on anatomical investigation.

On the causes of insanity, the doctor is pretty correct, though he has probably not mentioned the whole. Those he notices are—

‘Hard drinking, accompanied with watching; pride; disappointment; the anguish arising from calumny; sudden terror; false opinions respecting religion; and anxiety in trade. These operate chiefly on men.—From the peculiar situation of the other sex, their minds are sometimes deranged by the restraint or misdirection of passions, which were bestowed to constitute their happiness.’ p. 93.

The plan of medicinal treatment is directed with judgment. But the experience of our author does not lead us to expect much success from the use of mercurial remedies, though they have been much extolled by some practitioners in these cases. The want of success in a few instances, however, should not induce us to abandon the use of a class of powerful remedies, in a disease where advantage can be expected from very few, without at least giving them a full and fair trial. The results of Dr. Ferriar's trials are, indeed, decisive, as far as they go; but the cases in which he exhibited mercurials were not sufficiently numerous to afford satisfactory grounds for a final conclusion.

On ‘the management of the mind,’ a department of medical duty, which in our opinion has been too much neglected, or at least injudiciously attempted, the justness and propriety of the doctor's advice is only equalled by its humanity. The following is a part of it—

‘A system of discipline, mild, but exact, which makes the patient sensible of restraint, without exciting pain or terror, is best suited to those complaints. In the furious state, the arms, and sometimes the legs must be confined, but this should never be done when it can possibly be avoided. When the patient is mischievous and unruly, instead of ordering stripes, I shut him up in his cell, order the window to be darkened, and allow him no food but water-gruel and dry bread, till he shews tokens of repentance, which are never long delayed, upon this plan. Previous to this kind of punishment, I find it useful to remonstrate, for lunatics have frequently

frequently a high sense of honour, and are sooner brought to reflection by the appearance of indignity, than by actual violence, against which they usually harden themselves.' P. 109.

The present observations 'on the remedies of dropsy' in many respects support the conclusions of the preceding volume on the same subject. Cream of tartar seems, from the experience of Dr. Ferriar, to be justly placed at the head of the remedies in this disease. Out of thirty-three cases, in which it was here given, twenty-four were cured, and two relieved. Among these two were cases of hydrothorax, and fifteen complications of dropsy, of the most dangerous kinds. The rest were cases of anasarca.

The *digitalis* appears in this collection to very great disadvantage. For this we were prepared, because in our own trials we never could depend upon it. As a secondary remedy of this disease, we are also persuaded it will frequently disappoint the practitioner. We know it to be sometimes successful; but this is likewise the case with many other diuretics.

From the use of Bacher's tonic pills, mercurial frictions, and the bark with tincture of cantharides, we are aware that cures may occasionally be expected, as from many other remedies; but the physician will be often disappointed, if he rely too confidently upon them.

No satisfactory conclusions can be drawn from the cases in which nicotiana, gamboge, and virga aurea, were administered. On the cure of dropsy, the author's ideas are shortly these—

'That slow and gentle methods of treatment ought to be instituted, in all cases of dropsy in which the general habit is affected, either by visceral obstructions, or by the length of the disease. That from the junction of cream of tartar with *digitalis*, interposing purgatives occasionally, much may be hoped; and that mercury should be considered as a resource, only after the failure of milder remedies, which produce a less sudden, and less permanent impression on the constitution.' P. 170.

The views of our author in the paper on 'the prevention of fevers in great towns' are both manly and philosophical. We are afraid, however, that it will be long before the inconveniences, to which he has judiciously directed the attention of those who have the management of the affairs of the poor, be fully remedied. That the health of the poor is an important consideration, and that it requires to be more attended to, cannot however be disputed. The plan here proposed does not indeed go to a total removal of the causes that are constantly assailing it; yet,

yet, under proper management, we are persuaded it would be found to extend a considerable way. At any rate, something seems necessary to be done in large manufacturing towns, at least in order to stop the destructive progress of contagion.

On 'the dilatation of the heart,' we have not much new matter. The history of the present cases seems, however, to confirm, in some measure, the author's former observations on this curious disorder. More was hardly to be expected on a disease which is by no means common, though perhaps more so than has generally been imagined.

The doctor thinks it is evident, from the cases here described—

'That dilatations of the heart may be retarded in their progress, by different causes, and particularly by the action of diuretics; that in a certain stage of growth, dilatation of the heart is not incompatible with general fulness of the habit, and even, during a certain period, with some degree of vigour; and that local inflammation, whether produced by specific disease, or by the action of rubefacients, possesses a power of alleviating this complaint, even when supported by organic læsions of the heart itself. Hence, perhaps, the utility of issues, in cases of angina pectoris.' p. 222.

From pneumatic practice, our expectations, we must confess, were higher than the trials of Dr. Ferriar seem to justify. We were indeed well aware that the splendour of theory must frequently give way to the obstinacy of fact; but we were not prepared to meet with disappointment in cases where it had been said to be commonly useful, or to find a mere *palliative* in what had been represented as a most powerful remedy. The cases recorded here are not, it is true, sufficiently numerous to allow us to draw a fair conclusion; but they seem to show that less is to be expected from this new department of medicine than we have had reason to suppose. We are, however, well aware that many additional trials must be made, and a much greater body of facts be collected, before any certain conclusions can be arrived at on the subject.

On the whole, although we have met with some assertions which seem to have been made in too hasty manner, and a few conclusions which apparently rest upon insufficient evidence, we may here apply what an excellent observer has said of a good poem, that—

Ubi plura nitent in carmine, non ego paucis
Offendor maculis, quas aut incuria fudit,
Aut humana parum cavit natura.

The Works of John Hall-Stevenson, Esq. corrected and enlarged. With several original Poems, now first printed, and explanatory Notes. 3 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Debrett. 1795.

AS a republication, it is not necessary to enter deeply into the merits or demerits of the volumes before us. We cannot, however, agree with the editor in admitting any apology for obscenity; nor do we think it would have been any injury to the memory of the author, if many of the poems in the present collection had been permitted quietly to remain 'under the veil of oblivion' from which the editor has been at so much pains to rescue them.

Among much rubbish will be found, by those who have patience to dig for them, some poetical gems of no inconsiderable brilliancy. From the 'Vacation,' a parody on L'Allegro, we select the following as an example of the descriptive powers of the author—

' Pleased still with thee to meet
In some friendly rural seat;
Where I gladsome oft survey
Nature in her best array,
Woods and lawns and lakes between,
Fields of corn and hedges green,
Fallow grounds of tawny hue,
Distant hills, and mountains blue;
On whose ridge far off appears
A wood (the growth of many years)
Of awful oak, or gloomy pine,
Above th' horizon's level line
Rising black : such those of old
Where British Druids wont to hold
Solemn assemblies, and to keep
Their rites, unfolding myst'ries deep,
Such that fam'd Dodona's grove,
Sacred to prophetic Jove.
Oft I admire the verdant steep,
Spotted white with many a sheep,
While, in pastures rich below
Among the grazing cattle, slow
Moves the bull with heavy tread
Hanging down his lumpish head,
And the proud steed neigheth oft'
Shaking his wanton mane aloft.
Or, traversing the wood about,
The jingling packhorse-bells remote

I hear,

I hear, amid the noontide stillness,
 Sing through the air with brassy shrillness
 What time the waggon's cumbrous load
 Grates along the grav'ly road:
 There onward, dress'd in homely guise,
 Some unregarded maiden hies.
 Unless by chance a trav'ling 'squire,
 Of base intent and foul desire,
 Stops to insnare, with speech beguiling,
 Sweet innocence and beauty smiling.
 Nor fail I joyful to partake
 The lively sports of country wake,
 Where many a lad and many a lass
 Foot it on the close-trod grass.
 There nimble Marian of the green
 Matchless in the jig is seen,
 Allow'd beyond compare by all
 The beauty of the rustic ball:
 While, the tripping damsels near,
 Stands a lout with waggish leer;
 He, if Marian chance to shew
 Her taper leg and stocking blue,
 Winks and nods and laughs aloud,
 Among the merry-making crowd,
 Uttering forth in aukward jeer,
 Words unmeet for virgin's ear.
 Soon as ev'ning clouds have fled
 Their wat'ry store on earth's soft bed,
 And, through their flowing mantles thin,
 Clear azure spots of sky are seen,
 I quit some oak's close-cover'd bow'r,
 To taste the boon of new-fall'n show'r,
 To pace the corn-field's grassy edge
 Close by a fresh-blown sweet-brier hedge;
 While at every green leaf's end
 Pearly drops of rain depend,
 And an earthy fragrance 'round
 Rises from the moisten'd ground.
 Sudden a sun-beam, darting out,
 Brightens the landskip all about,
 With yellow light the grove o'erspreads,
 And tips with gold the haycocks' heads:
 Then, as mine eye is eastward led,
 Some fair castle rears its head,
 Whose height the country round commands,
 Well known mark to distant lands,

There the windows glowing bright
Blaze from afar with ruddy light,
Borrow'd from clouds of scarlet dye,
Just as the sun hath left the sky.' Vol. i. p. 12.

*A Treatise on the Police of the Metropolis; (concluded from
page 164.)*

WE have already noticed, that the criminal code of the country is a subject on which the able writer of the treatise before us has bestowed much animadversion; the extension of the punishment of death to the numerous descriptions of offences * that are so distinguished in our statute books, he expressly censures; the transportation of criminals, and the present system of employing them on board the hulks, he considers as too expensive, and in many respects deficient in the ends proposed to be answered; his attention is accordingly directed to arrangements, which he conceives most likely to render the labour of convicts productive to the public, and to accomplish the moral purposes of punishment. The chapter on this very important topic is fraught with intelligence, utility, and liberality of remark. We shall gratify our readers with some passages—

‘ In every part of Great Britain, the labour of man has become extremely valuable. While the extensive manufactures of the country occupy the more ingenious handicrafts, men are often, nay always wanting for the more laborious occupations of digging canals,—removing earth for embankments,—quarrying stones of different kinds, both for building and pavements; working on the highways—at alum works, and in raising ore from the numerous mines in different parts of the country, where there is an inexhaustible resource for human labour.

‘ It has been already observed in the course of this work, (and it is an observation that well deserves attention) namely, “ That it rarely happens that an atrocious offender, or a professed thief, is not an ingenious, clever man.”—He must be a man not only of resource, but possessing that firmness of mind and courage, which, if usefully and virtuously employed, would have raised him above the sphere that many of this class appear to occupy in society.

‘ Why, therefore, should not the public reap the benefit of this ingenuity in its fullest extent, as far as shall be consistent with safe custody?

‘ While the labour of man is so valuable;—while so many public and private undertakings are going on in this country requiring

* The offences for which the law pronounces the most awful sentence that can affect a member of the community amount to the shocking number of 160!

this labour, and even in many instances rendering that of convicts more desirable than any other, from the certainty of having the labour performed in a given time, arising from the legal discipline which must enter into the system of controul and safe custody, where neither the alehouse, nor the holiday rambles will disappoint the employers: in this, as well as other respects, convicts would be superior to the general run of labourers;—they would be under more subordination;—their labour would therefore be more productive in the course of a year, and those disappointments which occur, where labourers leave the service of their employers on sudden or important emergencies, would not be felt.

‘ Upon a subject of this kind, of all others the most important to society, which has been discussed in the course of this work, it is not necessary to hazard vague or uncertain speculations.—To men of business, and men of the world, the resource now suggested for the useful employment of convicts is obvious and practicable at first view.—The labour of man carried to its fullest extent, where a body of people are collected together, may be estimated, at the present period, on an average, at 1s. 8d. a day, even in the coarsest and most servile employment;—but if authority could be exercised, and unnecessary interruptions of labour prevented, the average would be equal to two shillings at least: and hence it may be fairly concluded, that to any contractor who had the means of employing able bodied convicts, their services, while in health, would be worth about 30l. a year.

‘ This will be more obvious, when it is taken into the calculation, that many of these unhappy people have been bred to useful mechanical employments, which might render their labour extremely productive; while others, by constant practice, in even the coarsest works, soon acquire a sleight or facility in the execution, which enables them to double, and sometimes to treble their earnings in the course of a year.—This has been manifested in innumerable instances in removing earth, or making embankments for canals and inland navigations.—A stranger to this species of labour, of the greatest bodily strength, cannot, at the outset, earn near so much money as a person of not half the athletic powers who has been accustomed to such work.

‘ The same reasoning applies to every kind of labour; and therefore if convicts, destined to servile employments for life, are not first able to earn the usual wages, constant practice, aided by their own natural genius, will soon enable them to reach the *ne plus ultra* of human exertion, so as to render them valuable acquisitions to many enterprising and useful associations in this kingdom, who would not only be able to give ample security for their safe custody, but also for the due performance of every other covenant which might relate to the preservation of health, and to the food, cloathing, hours of labour, and religious and moral instruction of such convicts:—

and

and also to the allowance in money to be made to each out of their earnings: for such encouragements should be held out, not only to soften the rigour of the punishment in proportion to the good behaviour of the convict, but also to assist in the support of the families of those who have wives and children, or to make restitution to those they have injured.

Let the experiment only be tried at first on a small scale, and if the author of these pages is not much mistaken, applications would be made by persons of great respectability, and even premiums offered for an assignment of the services of convicts under such circumstances; thereby shielding the public against a very heavy annual expence, and rendering useful and productive to the country the labour of the most mischievous part of the community, whose atonement in this manner for the injuries they have done to society, by being more immediately under the eye of the public, would probably go further in preventing crimes than (as has been already fully explained) even death itself, or any other mode of punishment that could be devised.

But if it shall not accord with the wisdom of the legislature to permit the labour of convicts to be let out on contract to any person who can give proper security for performing the covenants which may be required, there are many other methods of rendering their exertions useful, by dividing them among the different dockyards;—assigning a particular place where they shall work by themselves, in moving and sawing large timber,—forging anchors,—and also in making cordage, where, under proper management, their labour would in a very short time yield, at least, double the sum necessary to maintain them, which would afford a liberal resource for those pecuniary encouragements which would reconcile them to their lot, and induce them to exert all their vigour in rendering their labour productive.

The great error has been in permitting convicts to be at large upon society, after herding together under circumstances where the certainty of liberty within a known period, excites no other wish than to return to their former crimes, encouraged and fortified by the knowledge they have acquired in these seminaries of wickedness, not only of the means of eluding the detection of officers of justice, but also of evading the law, if they should be apprehended.

When an atrocious offender has forfeited his life by the laws of his country, and is ready to drop into the grave and with the dread before his eyes (in many instances realized) of being placed upon the table of an anatomist for dissection:—where is the hardship of giving him an option to accept of perpetual labour, as the price of life?—Yet this has been thought too severe, as appears by the acts of the legislature quoted in this chapter.

Reflecting, however, on the operation of this species of punishment; in point of manual labour, the hardship to be imposed is no

more than every honest artisan, who works industriously for his family, must, during the whole course of his life, impose upon himself.—The conditions of a convict would even in some respects be superior, inasmuch as he would have medical assistance and other advantages tending to the preservation of health, which do not attach to the lower classes of the people, whose irregularities, from not being restrained, and whose pursuits and labours, by not being directed by good judgment and intelligence, often produce bad health, and extreme poverty and distress.' p. 334.

In these speculations there is nothing which does not appear susceptible of practical efficacy: and we ardently hope that they will attract the notice, and stimulate the endeavours of the legislature to establish more efficient modes of criminal punishment than those which at present subsist.

Illegal gambling in lotteries, (supposed to the amount of 500,000*l.* per annum, by servants only!) and the number of public-houses and gin-shops within the bills of mortality, (stated to be 5,204), where the consumption of spirits and beer is estimated at *three millions* annually! are abuses on which our author expatiates with much zealous concern for the public good, and to repress which, he proposes many regulations that would, in our opinion, be followed by very salutary consequences.

Several glaring defects in our civil as well as criminal jurisprudence are pointed out by the sagacious author of the present treatise; his observations on the trouble and expense of recovering debts are just and striking—

‘ Prudent men under such circumstances, will forego a just claim upon another, or make up a bad one upon themselves, as by far the least of two evils in all cases, where they come in contact with designing and bad characters; and hence it is that the worthless part of mankind, availing themselves in civil, as others do in criminal cases of the imperfections of the law, forge these defects into a rod of oppression, either to defraud the honest part of the community of a just right, or to create fraudulent demands where no right attaches, merely because those miscreants know that an action at law even for 20*l.* cannot either be prosecuted or defended without sinking three times the amount in law expences, besides the loss of time still more valuable to men in business.

‘ To convince the reader that this observation is not hazarded on weak grounds, and that the evil is so great as to cry aloud for a remedy, it is only necessary to state that in the county of Middlesex alone, in the year 1793, the number of bailable writs and executions for debts from ten to twenty pounds, amounted to no less than 5719, and the aggregate amount of the debts sued for was 81,791*l.*

‘ It will scarcely be credited, although most unquestionably true, that the mere costs of these actions, although made up and not defended at all, would amount to 68,728 l.—And if defended, the aggregate expence to recover 81,791 l. must be—(strange and incredible as it may appear), no less than 285,950 l. ! being considerably more than three times the amount of the debts sued for or defended.’ P. 421.

As a remedy for these inconveniences, the author continues—

‘ If instead of the various inferior courts for the recovery of debts, (exclusive of the courts of conscience) which have been mentioned in this chapter, and which are of very limited use on account of appeals lying in actions above 5 l.—the justices, in general sessions of the peace, specially commissioned, were to be empowered to hear and determine finally by a jury all actions of debt under 50 l. and the costs to be taxed in proportion to the amount of the verdict, great benefits would result to the public.’ P. 423.

We are rather inclined to doubt the eligibility of this plan. The most rational and effectual mode of relieving the public from the hardships complained of, would be to lessen considerably, or even to annihilate, taxes on law proceedings*, as far as they attach to suits in court; there would consequently be no necessity to remove actions above 40 l. and under 50 l. from the cognisance of the higher tribunals, where easy terms and a satisfactory solemnity of justice would then be united.

On the subject of imprisonment for debt, our author offers many sensible and acute remarks; he states the number of persons who are arrested in the course of a year for trifling debts, to be about 40,000, and thus feelingly alludes to the predicament of many unfortunate debtors—

‘ To incarcerate one member of the body politic, whose misfortunes and losses may have arisen from crediting another, who is relieved by a commission of bankruptcy, because his debts amounted to more than 100 l. neither accords with justice, humanity, or state policy. It debases the minds of thousands whose conduct never deserved such a fate—who were from the nature of their dealings, although small, entitled, upon the principle adopted by the legislature, to the same relief which is extended to the higher classes by whom they often suffer—and sometimes too by the most worthless and depraved.—While no good can arise from their confinement, it is thus rendered infinitely more severe than that which is in many instances inflicted on criminal offenders.—Their labour is lost to

* This subject is very ably and acutely discussed in a recent publication, entitled *Escheat &c Taxation*, by Mr. Bentham. See *Crit. Rev. New Arr.* Vol. XVI. p. 196.

the community.—Their families are neglected—and perhaps reared up in vice and idleness to become nuisances in society, where they might have been virtuous and useful members.' p. 425.

We are sorry to admit the truth of the foregoing observations in their fullest extent. The too lenient operation of the bankrupt laws is, in our opinion, as often productive of impunity to dishonest men, as the law between debtor and creditor is, in other instances, practically found to add oppression to misfortune. It might perhaps be worthy of investigation, whether an intention of fraud in the debtor should not be proved to the satisfaction of a jury, previously to his being deprived of that personal liberty, which, in all other cases, the spirit and the letter of our legal institutions protect with such scrupulous jealousy.

To follow the author of this production through all the multifarious topics it embraces, would exceed our limits, rather than our inclination; it may, however, be seen from the specimens we have given, that scarcely any corruption of public morals, or defect of municipal provision, has escaped the penetrating view and animated discussion of a magistrate, whose talents and patriotism * have the highest claim to respect and gratitude from his fellow citizens. For our own part, we feel great pleasure in pronouncing, that the accomplishments of the scholar, the liberal sentiment of the philosopher, and the practical accuracy of the man of business, contribute to form the character of one of the most important publications that have issued from the English press.

Since the above article was written, a third edition of this treatise has appeared, with fuller extracts from various statutes connected with the subject, and more particular definitions of the offences respectively discussed.

Knowledge the Foundation of Virtue. A Sermon, addressed to the young Persons who attend at the Gravel Pit Meeting, Hackney. By Thomas Belsham. 8vo. 6d. Johnson. 1795.

THIS sermon is ushered into notice with 'Ὁς πρᾶτοι καὶ ἀγῶναις, as a motto; but its pertinence to the subject we cannot perceive. The discourse itself hath much in it to commend.

* The profits arising from the sale of this publication are devoted by the author, in the way of subscription, toward establishing a fund for the relief and employment of discharged convicts, and other vagabonds, who have no visible honest means of subsistence.

After

After an Introduction, less determinately proper than from the author might be looked for, and his having premised (p. 7.)

‘ That virtue signifies that combination of habits, and that course of conduct which will produce the greatest ultimate good. Vice is that combination of habits, or course of conduct which leads to misery, or at least tends to the diminution of happiness—’

Mr. Belfham goes on to discriminate, amid the various objects of knowledge, the properties of knowledge, moral and religious, as consisting in the right apprehension of moral and religious truth, and being equally remote from credulity on the one hand, and from scepticism or infidelity on the other. Having cautioned his auditors against the pernicious effects of credulity, he adverts to the opposite extreme—to scepticism and infidelity: he observes—

‘ There is in the present age an unusual tendency, and especially amongst young persons who speculate upon moral and religious subjects. It is a well known property of matter, that when once put into motion, it will move for ever in the same direction, if not stopped by some external force. An *inertia* similar to this, seems to exist in mind. When young persons begin to review the principles of their early years, and see reason to discard one prejudice after another, it is with difficulty that they know where to stop, and are sometimes tempted to relieve themselves from farther embarrassment by discarding every thing at once, especially as by this means they acquire at an easy rate the reputation of philosophers whose minds are superior to vulgar prejudices.

‘ It is plain, however, that no mind is so feeble as not to be capable of such an effort, or rather of such a want of effort as this: for in order to believe nothing, all that is necessary is not to think nor to enquire about any thing; and I am persuaded that infidelity is much more frequently the result of indolence and inattention, than of enquiry. At any rate one thing is self evident, viz. that *unbelief* is not *knowledge*, and that true discernment consists in the capacity of distinguishing between what we ought to believe, and what to discard.’ p. 11.

Considering his young friends as arrived at years of discretion, and supposing the question to have occurred, ‘ What is that course of conduct by which I shall best ensure happiness on the whole?’ the preacher thus addresses them—

‘ This is an enquiry of great importance. It is a problem which is worth solving; for happiness is the only quality which gives value to existence, and without which being would not be worth acceptance.

‘ Permit me to add, that the solution of this question is not so easy as many apprehend; nor is it reasonable to expect that it should. Do you find it easy to ascertain the surest method of acquiring wealth, honour, or political influence? Is there no difficulty in discovering the best means of attaining eminence, or of ensuring success in any art or science, in any profession or occupation in life? And is it reasonable then to expect that the sublimest of all sciences, the most useful of all arts, the art of attaining the highest possible felicity, should be acquired without a proportionable degree of mental exertion, and diligent application? ’

‘ How stands the fact? Are there many who succeed in the arts of life? Are there many victorious candidates for the prize of opulence, of ambition, of fame, of science? Are there not many who start in the race, but few who reach the goal? And is happiness, the best happiness of man, a prize more easily and more frequently attained than that of honour and of wealth? Do we not know from the highest authority that many are called, but few are chosen? That straight is the gate and narrow the way that leads to life, and few there be that find it? Are there many in the circle of your acquaintance concerning whom you can pronounce with confidence that they have discovered, and with undeviating steps pursued, the path of true happiness? ’

‘ You are then, my friends, convinced that in order to attain to excellence in virtue, or even to practise it at all to any good purpose, it is necessary that you should form a distinct idea of the nature of virtue, and of the object and extent of its requisitions; and you are sensible that, like all other interesting questions, the solution of it is attended with considerable difficulty. Your conviction of the importance of this enquiry will grow as I proceed to state what those subjects are concerning which it is necessary that you should gain satisfactory information before you can make any considerable progress in a virtuous course.’ P. 12.

These requisites to pre-eminence in virtue are next shown to be a rational conviction of the existence of God and his attributes, particularly his goodness; together with the belief of a future existence, the certainty of which can only be obtained through the discoveries made in the Christian dispensation. Having, in a concise and animated manner, stated, with a view to the last of these topics, the appearances of nature which Christianity confirms, he proceeds—

‘ Thus, my friends, you see the inestimable value of the Christian revelation, and how admirably it is calculated to supply the deficiencies of the light of nature. Reject it and you can have no rational hope of future existence; receive it, and no rational doubt can remain, no uncertainty upon a subject the most interesting to
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the human heart, the most necessary to be known, in order to ascertain the best and wisest rule of life.' P. 22.

Hence, it is urged as necessary to a rational desire of happiness, that the truth of the Christian religion should be thoroughly investigated, and the principal arguments for it, with the replies to the principal objections against it, should be made familiar to the mind,

' When you are satisfied that God is good, and that he intends his intelligent creatures for an immortal existence, there still remains another subject of enquiry, concerning which it is necessary that you should attain rational satisfaction, in order to lay a foundation for eminent virtue. This question is, What is the true rule of life, the best means of securing happiness here and hereafter ?

' For the solution of this question you must learn in what true happiness consists, by what means those habits and affections are to be acquired which are most directly conducive to it, and how the contrary habits are to be avoided or corrected.

' Just ideas concerning the nature of happiness are to be gained by a careful enquiry into the nature of man, by experience and observation, and by the testimony of the virtuous and the wise, of those especially who have had leisure and inclination to direct their principal attention to moral subjects. It is universally allowed, by the enemies as well as by the friends of revelation, that the Christian scriptures exhibit a perfect rule of virtue, and that no better general maxim can be laid down than this, Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart, and with all thy understanding, and thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself.

' It is farther necessary that you should know by what means those affections and habits are to be generated which constitute what is called virtue, and which will ensure ultimate felicity. No accurate observer of human nature will contend that these affections are innate. Character is the result of habit, and habits are the necessary result of circumstances, impressions, and mental discipline. Since then it is allowed that the love of God and our neighbour is the consummation of virtue, it is necessary that you should know what those circumstances are by which these affections will be generated, and what that discipline is to which the mind must be resolutely subjected in order to form those moral habits which will constitute a character eminently virtuous, and which will form and entitle it to present peace and immortal happiness. This is a very copious subject, upon which it would be easy to enlarge.

' But I hope, my young friends, that enough has been said to convince you that knowledge is essential to virtue, that no estimable moral quality, no eminence or dignity of character is to be acquired without it ; and to excite in your breast an ardent thirst after
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that knowledge, that sublime philosophy, that truest and most useful science which is most immediately connected with the practice of virtue, and which has the most direct and powerful tendency to render you wise and happy.' P. 22.

If this article be extended beyond the ordinary limits which we allow to a single discourse, it is to be observed that such useful sermons but seldom occur.

Military Reflections on the Attack and Defence of the City of London; proved by the Author to have been the most vulnerable Part of Consequence in the whole Island, in the Situation it was left in the Year 1794, &c. &c. By Lieutenant Colonel George Hanger. Most respectfully addressed to the Right Hon. Thomas Skinner, Lord Mayor of London. 8vo. 3s. Sewed. Debrett. 1795.

IN the opinion of lieutenant colonel Hanger, the metropolis is by no means so secure as is generally imagined from an hostile visit from our republican neighbours. It must indeed be allowed that their numerous victories, joined to the natural vanity of the French character, may have well nigh prepared them for undertakings even of a more desperate kind than that against which we are here so earnestly recommended to be upon our guard. It is not unlikely that many, who consider the following observations without adverting at least to the arguments which weigh on the opposite side, may incline to our author's way of thinking. Alluding to what happened in the last war, he says—

‘When the French and Spanish fleets lay off Plymouth, it cannot be denied but they might have landed in the west; and, in my humble opinion, when lord Howe last war went to the relief of Gibraltar, the French might at that particular period have landed any where they chose. I hope, my lord, I may risk an opinion why they did not attempt an invasion at that time; their military force was nothing equal to what it now is; they had not more than 250,000 men to guard their extensive frontier, garrison their West India possessions, and assist the Americans with a military force against us. At that time, my lord, they had only an army, but now they are an armed nation; at that time, my lord, they were not in possession of Brabant, and what is more doubly destructive to us, they were not in the possession of Holland, by which, my lord, to use a military expression, they have effectually turned the left flank of Britain. How doubly suspicious ought we now to be, when our military position is so much altered, and our whole eastern coast open to their depredations, which it never was by many degrees so much, before this unfortunate period.

‘There are particular times when our grand fleet, however formidable, are absolutely useless, and unable to protect us from invasion;

tion ; I shall quote a few instances :—first, when they are many hundred miles at sea west of the Land's End ; next, my lord, be pleased to observe, that when they are either at Plymouth or Spithead, and the wind blows strong at east, they cannot come up channel to the relief of the capital, or any other place that lay east from them. Next, my lord, be pleased to consider that the same wind which keeps our fleet from coming up channel, is favourable for the French to invade us, and when that very wind changes, it will carry them home long before it can bring our fleet, or any part of it, from Plymouth, or even Spithead. Again, be pleased to observe my farther remarks, that our grand fleet never can dare approach a lee shore ; and what is more to our disadvantage, they can do little or nothing amongst sand banks and shoals, of which there are abundance off many parts of our coasts, and most particularly in, and at the approach to the river Thames ; therefore it is my opinion, that if the enemy ever come with a superior flotilla, they may effect a landing, in spite of our fleet.

‘ It has been a general received opinion, that as long as our fleets are superior at sea, that we never can be invaded. In my opinion, my lord, this is the most extravagant and the wildest idea that ever entered the mind of man ; it originated in folly, and has been nursed in the lap of national insolence, presuming too much upon our superiority at sea. No one glories more in the wooden walls of Old England than I do, on them depend our wealth, commerce, possessions, and consequence as a great nation ; but they, I am sorry to say, can have but little to do in an invasion, except in the deeper waters of the west of England, and much less now than they ever had, as the French are in possession both of Holland and Brabant, by which our situation as a nation is totally altered.

‘ My lord, I have seriously reflected on my pillow on the danger the capital has been exposed to, within these few months, since the French have been in possession of Holland ; the easterly winds prevailing, with dark and long nights, and not a ship in the mouth of the Thames, or near it, or any defence whatever, that I know of, to protect the capital ; I confess it is to my utter astonishment that they have not run a body of men over in the long nights from Holland into the Thames, for in seven hours after landing, they might have been in London without opposition ; indeed, they have had their hands pretty full of business, which I believe is the only reason they did not, but this is no reason why we should think they will not do it. I know full well, my lord, that I write strong, and that it is my intent to paint the dangers stronger, and that many may say, however successful I may be in pointing out some particular points of defence that ought to be attended to, yet that this book tends to alarm the citizens of London ; to which I will reply, that my heart is warm and zealously attached to the interest of the city of London, and to my country ; and that if they can lay no worse charge

charge to my door, I shall be satisfied; for I devoutly wish I was endowed with ten times the powers I possess, that I might ten-fold impress on the minds of the city of London the dangers they have been exposed to, and will be exposed to, until other steps are taken for their protection.

‘ Let me ask a question; if France should make peace with some of the foreign powers, (which she seems at present desirous of) against what place can she turn the powers of her numerous armies but against this island? In spite of our grand fleet they may land whenever they please, (I had almost said, wherever they please), I might be asked, Where do you think they could land? to which I would only reply, any where, when our fleet is at sea.’ P. 11.

It would carry us beyond our limits to go at length into the question of the probability of an invasion; but those who feel an inclination to judge for themselves on such a subject, will do well to resort to this pamphlet, where at least they will find it treated in an interesting manner.

The Law of Tenures; including the Theory and Practice of Copyholds. By the late Lord Chief Baron Gilbert. The Fourth Edition corrected; with an Historical Introduction on the Feudal System, and copious Notes and Illustrations. By Charles Watkins, Esq. Author of an Essay on the Law of Descents, &c. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Butterworth. 1796.

MR. WATKINS is a writer to whose accurate and learned labours the profession of the law has, in several instances, been considerably indebted; and we are therefore pleased to see one of the most profound treatises of the great chief baron Gilbert published under the care of such an editor.

The particular reasons which induce a new edition of any law book, are material to be known; and as no editor is more entitled to the compliment than Mr. Watkins, we shall quote the whole of his Advertisement—

‘ The former editions of the *Tenures of Gilbert* having become extremely scarce, it is conceived that no apology can be requisite for presenting a new one to the world. The deservedly high estimation in which the original has been so long held, must equally render unnecessary any eulogium which an advertisement can bestow: it remains therefore only to say, that the present editor has been anxious to add to the utility of the work; and, by pointing out more immediately the principles on which the doctrines advanced are established, and by the addition of references, to enable the student more easily to pursue his researches.

‘ The present editor embraces, with much pleasure, the opportunity thus afforded him, of acknowledging the obligation which he
owes,

owes to the friendship and politeness of Mr. Hargrave, for his kind communication of the chief baron's manuscript "History of the Feud," which is in the possession of that gentleman. From that manuscript, the editor has been enabled to correct many passages in the "Treatise on Tenures," and to enrich his pages with some observations of the very learned author, with which, till now, the profession has not been presented.

' The editor is sorry that he was not enabled to correct the whole of the text:—But he remembered the inviolability which the sacredness of the author's work must ever demand. The inaccuracies which occur must be rather lamented than condemned, when it is considered that the work was posthumous; and that the ingenious author was frequently incapacitated, during many of his latter years, to write himself, and, in consequence, obliged to trust to his clerks for the faithful communication of what he could only dictate.

' Some few notes were added to the third edition, which have been preserved; and from which those of the present editor are distinguished by being inserted between crotchets. The side references also remain (except in a very few instances) as they were given in the last edition; and for the accuracy of which the present editor cannot, therefore, be answerable.

' It has been remarked, that "the sparks of all the sciences in the world are raked up in the ashes of the law" (Finche L. b. 1. c. 3.) Yet the study of it has been rendered disgusting by the confined manner in which it has been treated. When the laws are connected with the history and manners of the times, they at once interest and amuse: we develop their principles with admiration, and we trace their progress with pleasure. The amplitude and liberality of sentiment which our author displayed in deducing those principles, and in marking that progress, should be equally our imitation, as they have to truly been deserving the celebrity they have received.' P. v.

The concluding passage of this advertisement must give pleasure to those who have justly lamented the repulsive narrowness of discussion with which law subjects have generally been treated, and the plodding mechanism and relative ignorance which have been falsely dignified with the name of legal learning. In addition to the authority of Finch, on the connection of general science with law, our editor might have alluded to a very beautiful amplification of the same sentiment in that old but valuable book, *Dodderidge's English Lawyer*. The venerable judge, among various acute remarks in his disquisition on this topic, says, 'the study of the law must of necessity stretch out her hand and crave to be holpen and assisted almost of all other sciences;' and again, that 'the professor of the laws should be furnished with the knowledge of all good literature of most of the sciences liberal; for if a man may

observe the use of those sciences to lie hidden in the law; who then may better use or observe them, than he who is already furnished with them? And if the knowledge of the law do receive ornament by these eruditions (as I think no man can deny) it shall be very expedient and well befitting the student of the laws to have first familiarity and acquaintance with them, and to be instructed in the same.'

In a short and sensible Introduction, Mr. Watkins traces the progress of European society to the establishment of the feudal system; we have often regretted that on this subject the speculations of analogy have been too freely intermixed with historical facts; the remarks of Mr. Watkins are rather tinged with those fanciful notions of tracing the exact features of the British constitution, in the customs of the ancient Germans, which were so enthusiastically propagated by the late Dr. Gilbert Stewart, and which diminished the accuracy, and of consequence the authority, of productions that evinced an ardent and ingenious mind.

Such must ever be the fate of those writers whose talents are warped by prejudice in favour of a certain set of opinions: prejudice which imparts a false colour to facts, and which becomes more petulantly tenacious by the habits of controversy.

On the work before us, much meritorious attention has been bestowed: the notes and illustrations discover considerable research in the antiquities of our law, and a respectable taste in general literature. As we hope, and indeed expect, that this will not be the last time Mr. Watkins will undertake the task of an author or editor, we would caution him against the affected use of such quaint words as 'emaned,' &c. and also against frequent clusters of references, on points not expressly legal, and which betray a seeming ostentation of reading.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICAL.

Facts relative to the Conduct of the War in the West Indies; collected from the Speech of the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, in the House of Commons, on the 28th of April, 1796, and from the Documents laid before the House upon that Subject. 4to. 2s. 6d. Owen. 1796.

THIS pamphlet contains 205 quarto pages, of which fifty-nine are given to the defence of administration, and the remainder to the details of ships, cargoes, extracts of letters to and from H. Dundas, memorials on the sick, and directions for the better management

agement of the troops in the West Indies. From what pen the former part comes, we have no intimation; but if it does not proceed from the secretary himself, it comes with such an aspect, as would imply that it has been submitted to his direction. There is, throughout, a total want of the *lucidus ordo*; and many redundancies might have been lopped off, if an accurate statement were the chief thing required, without doing any injury to the composition. On the merits of the question it is not our part to decide; and indeed, from the data presented to us, we should deem it improper to form an absolute decision. Many things require explanation, for which probably no opportunity will be given; the opposition will retain its first opinion, ministry will conceive that it has triumphantly overcome its opponents. Truth says, 'I am not satisfied!' There should be a tribunal before which both parties might be brought, from which no documents can be concealed, where the judges are not in league with the accusers or the defendants. The reasons of both sides being submitted to such a tribunal, a conclusion may be drawn in the present state of the question; most persons will ascribe praise or blame to administration, not from its merits or demerits in the present instance, but from some previous determination.

The publication is however useful, as it brings together, for those who have leisure to read it, a great many documents of importance to a West-India campaign. To the military we recommend particularly the directions for health on the voyage and on landing; and the many complaints of inattention to the sick, and of negligence in sending out medicines, will, it is to be hoped, have a due effect on the superintendants of these departments.

What expectations an impartial man may form of the whole, may be seen from the following extract—

'It will appear scarcely credible, after reading Mr. Dundas's letter of the 28th of September, that the detention of this convoy, from the end of September to the middle of December, should have been imputed to ministers. What diabolical caprice could be supposed to actuate their conduct? What species of gratification were they likely to find in the failure and disappointment of their own measures? What plausible argument can be assigned in support of this charge? A more ridiculous one was never brought forward by the intemperate rage of party.' P. 24.

We have no scruple of saying that this detention, without pretending to think well or ill of the present administration, might be imputed to ministers upon very different grounds from any furnished in the above extract. A ministry might have been bewildered, might have been distracted between two objects, the defence of the West Indies and the conduct of the war in Europe. Uncertainty and fluctuation in its councils, rising from the events of each

each day, might have been the cause: and indeed, amongst the variety of plausible reasons, we are likely to err in assigning one; but the author is not likely to assist us in finding the true one.

We could not help observing with what confidence the narrative is concluded—

‘The general statement given by Mr. Dundas of the expeditions provided for this campaign will remain an irrefragable proof that every human precaution was taken to procure to his majesty’s arms in that quarter that decisive success which, by enabling us to terminate the war with glory and advantage, would have completed the character of an able minister, and have satisfied the best ambition of an honest man.’ P. 59.

Yet in the account of the reinforcement to be sent to sir Charles Grey, of which he stood in most urgent need, we have the following note—

‘The third regiment ordered was the 79th, but by some mistake of the orders sent to Flushing, it was directed to join the duke of York’s army, instead of embarking at that port for the West Indies.’ P. 23.

One precaution at least was evidently wanting, when a whole regiment went in a contrary direction to its real designation; and this may lead some people to think that some other precautions were wanting (as they were suspected to be) in the duke’s army, to secure the glory and advantage of his majesty’s arms.

The Rights of Nature, against the Usurpations of Establishments. A Series of Letters to the People of Britain, on the State of Public Affairs, and the recent Effusions of the Right Hon. Edmund Burke. By John Thelwall. Letter the First. 8vo. 2s. Symonds. 1796.

In the late publication of Mr. Edmund Burke which has so much excited the public curiosity, the following are the three objects of discussion—1. The spirit of jacobinism in Great Britain, and the most direct way of overpowering it. 2. The beauty of the old governments, and the wickedness of those who attempt to weaken them. 3. The expediency and justice of our war with France, the resources which we possess to prolong it, and the wisdom of pursuing it, even though we stake our national existence on its success.—To the first only of these heads, the following letter is to be considered as an answer.

Without dwelling on the beauties or blemishes of Mr. Burke’s publication in point of composition (for, as a writer, Mr. Burke betrays numerous faults amidst numerous excellencies) we must avow that we were struck with horror, as every friend to humanity must be, with several of his declarations; and we are not surprised that Mr. Thelwall, who, if Mr. Burke’s system of extirpation was to
take

take place, would probably be the first victim, expresses himself in a temper somewhat different from that exhibited in his former publication.

In this reply then to Mr. Burke, the reader is not to look for very close and methodical reasoning. The author grows warm at the very outset of the address, and, in the most pointed terms of declamation, aims throughout to rouse the people of this country to a sense of their wrongs, and turns frequently to Mr. Burke with severe but very just animadversion.

The publication of this pamphlet, we understand, was somewhat expedited in order that it might appear by the fifth of November: a few proofs therefore of haste, and a few errors of the press might be produced: but amidst all we discover traces of an ingenious and strong mind, as well as of a warm and benevolent heart, on which we could with great pleasure enlarge, and which entitle the letter to the public notice.

Speaking concerning many absurd institutions established in Europe, Mr. Thelwall expresses himself in the following eloquent manner.

‘ Are these the institutions which Mr. B. wishes to support? Are these the perfect models of social jurisprudence which it is blasphemy to approach with the unhallowed finger of innovation or reform? Are these (in their effects) the regular and orderly fabrics of the antient legitimate “government of states,” whose plans and materials were “drawn from the old Germanic or Gothic customary,” and of which those stately architects, “the civilians, the jurists, and the publicists,” have given us such flattering draughts, ground plots and elevations? If they are, perish, I say, such temples of oppression and injustice! Away with your idle jargon of *venerable* antiquity:—that awful, but endearing epithet, belongs not, Mr. Burke, to grey hairs alone. Away with your pompous boasts of grace, beauty, and sublimity, of swelling proportions, and polished symmetry. If such are the effects of these fabrics, they are hateful and accursed; and, though crowned with “Corinthian capitals,” though hung with antique trophies of renown, and adorned with offerings of ancient and modern piety, they must perish; they ought to perish; and they will. They are Augean stables that must be cleansed. They are Bastilles of intellect, which must be destroyed. They are insulting mausoleums of buried rights, and are ready to totter from their base; for the day of the resurrection is near at hand; and “the vail of the temple shall be rent in twain.” P. 17.

On the whole, we think this a very ample and proper reply to that part of Mr. Burke’s book which Mr. Thelwall undertook to reply to.

The Chronologist of the present War. Containing a faithful Series of the Events which have occurred in Europe, from the Commencement of the Year 1792, to the end of the Year 1795. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Allen and West. 1796.

The value of every compilation of this kind depends, first, on accuracy, and secondly, on arrangement. As far as we have examined it, we see nothing to blame on the score of accuracy; but in point of arrangement, it is totally useless. ‘The editor trusts that all public political characters will be struck with the usefulness of the work, when they find it necessary to determine precisely the date of any remarkable event.’ But supposing that one of these *public political characters*, or a character of any other kind, wanted the date of an event, ex. gr. the execution of Robespierre, he has no shorter way to come at it than by looking over the greater part of a closely printed volume of 336 pages; whereas, in one twentieth part of the time he might find it in the contents of the volumes of the Annual Register. As a general outline of the events of the last four years, this work may be useful to those who peruse it in series; but it is not calculated for immediate reference, and can shorten no labour.

Free Thoughts on a General Reform, addressed to every independent Man. The Truth equally Distant from the flimsy Machinery of Messrs. Burke, Reeves, and Co. as from the gross Ribaldry of Thomas Paine, and his Party. By —S—S, M. A. &c. 8vo. 2s. Dilly. 1796.

This author flies with such rapidity from subject to subject, that it is not an easy matter to discover his drift. It would appear, however, to be expressed in the following passage—

‘That since the national purity seems to have received its *stains* from the *higher orders*, the act of *expunging* must begin from them. That in every department the true interest of the kingdom is sacrificed to a SYSTEM OF PARTY, which is the grand source of vice, and is destructive to liberty, honesty, and religion; and that *unity* on the *independent* part of the community can alone overturn the motley monster.’ P. 76.

All this is fair; and the author, by censuring indiscriminately the conduct of the ministry and their opponents, wishes to establish his claim to independence: but unfortunately he proves, that in some points an independent man can write as absurdly as a party man, and with as much of a mischievous and bigoted spirit. Of this he affords a most remarkable instance in p. 19, in which he calls Mr. Erikinge the idol of a revolutionary mob, and compares him to the commonest strumpet in the commonest bagnio; asserting that, like her, he refuses his aid where the purse of the party cannot fully satisfy his demand, &c. The fact is, that this author, in striving to
avoid

avoid both parties, has formed a set of opinions from the worst parts of both; for, in the instance given, we have a mixture of the *flimsy machinery of Messrs. Burke, Reeves, and Co.* and the *gross ribaldry of Thomas Paine and Co.* Yet we do not believe that either of these gentlemen would have written on Mr. Erskine's public services in a manner so grossly opprobrious and false.

A Letter to the Right Hon. William Pitt, showing how Crimes may be prevented, and the People made Happy. By John Donaldson, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1796.

Mr. Donaldson still persists in keeping his *nesfrums* to himself, unless the minister will put the patients under his immediate care. Mr. Pitt is therefore requested to put some streets and roads under his care, and also the business of providing just balances and weights. He enters largely into the expense of keeping dogs, and powdering our heads; on which last subject we have some curious information. Powder occasions baldness, and *millers* have no hair upon their heads; and 'whatever effect powder may have on the head, it is a common observation that millers and dealers in flour, &c. are in general deaf, unfeeling, and harder-hearted to the poor than any other set of people.' When these *facts* are established, we may probably discover a source of *wickedness*, and be able to resolve a very important question, which seems to arise very naturally, namely, whether a man, whose iniquities arise from want of *hair*, may not be completely reformed by wearing a *wig*?

For our notices of Mr. Donaldson's former schemes, see Crit. Rev. March, April, and November, of last year.

The Argus; or, General Observer: a Political Miscellany. Containing the most important Events of Europe, and the principal Occurrences in England, from the Meeting of Parliament, October 29, 1795, to its Dissolution, May 18, 1796. With a variety of original Letters and Reflections on the interesting and critical Situation of the British Empire. By Sampson Perry. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Symonds. 1796.

This miscellany, like the newspaper of the same name, from which it is principally compiled, has very slender claims to merit, and many exceptionable articles included in it. It is nevertheless capable of affording both information and amusement, in as great a degree as the generality of periodical publications which profess to gratify curiosity without any material profit to the understanding.

A Vindication of Mons. de la Fayette, from the libellous Aspersions of the Right Hon. Edmund Burke; with the Character of the latter Gentleman, faithfully delineated. Extracted from the political Writings of W. Miles, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Symonds. 1796.

If we had not read the narrative of poor Le Maître, and of his suf-

serings in a prison in this metropolis, which he so emphatically calls the new Bastile,—if we had not observed the little impression made upon the public mind by a plain recital of the evils to which an innocent young man has been exposed in this supposed humane country,—we should have said, upon our recollection of former times, that the name of La Fayette must harrow up the feelings of every Englishman. In vain do we execrate Robespierre! Robespierre is an angel of light to the wretch who is the author of La Fayette's sufferings in the dungeons of Olmutz. La Fayette requires no vindication from the garrulity of a foul mouthed orator. We degrade his character by bringing him for a moment in competition with a mere ranter, who, to serve his purpose, had not pity on the distressed situation of his sovereign. If La Fayette had wanted a vindication, we could not have commended the very violent declamation against Mr. Burke, too much resembling his style, which runs through the work before us. Indeed, the name of La Fayette overpowers us: our pen drops from our hands in writing it, and we blush that we are Englishmen.

A Letter to the Right Hon. William Pitt, on the present alarming Crisis of public Affairs. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1796.

This letter appears to have been written in the early part of the summer. It contains a review and strong censure of the minister's rash and unwise conduct before as well as since the commencement of the war. He is of opinion that the conclusion of the campaign of 1793 was the decisive moment when the fate of England, of Europe, and of mankind, might be said to depend on the resolutions of the British minister. It was an awful crisis; and had peace been Mr. Pitt's object, there never was a time when equitable terms might have been offered and obtained with such a moral certainty of success. After expostulating with Mr. Pitt on the absurdity of his subsequent schemes, and on the insufficiency of his conquests, he advises him to lay aside the miserable forms in which he has been hitherto entrenched, to call the new parliament together without delay, to speak to them in the language which befits the time and the magnitude of the emergency, to conceal from them nothing which it imports them to know, and, in short, to abandon his whole system. He adds, however, that he is far from flattering himself that the minister is capable of approving or following advice so enlarged and salutary.

Speaking of Mr. Pitt as a minister, he observes, that the Godolphins, the Walpoles, and the Pelhams, were closely and integrally united with the prince whom they served, and the people whom they governed. They had a great hereditary stake in the country. They felt the warmest and dearest interest in its preservation, its felicity and its prosperity.—Mr. Pitt being destitute alike of patrimony and of descendants, his cares are necessarily limited to the preservation of his office, and the support of his personal glory; nor,

nor, if unfortunate, can he desire any other grave than the ruins of the monarchy, under which he seems determined to bury himself. Incapable of descending into a private station, after having so long occupied the highest place; unsoftened by the daily intercourse of tender and domestic offices; insulated in the midst of society, he is too intractable to profit by experience, and too haughty to listen to admonition.—The whole of this letter is indeed a most severe, yet, we fear, useless *philippic*; and the author's expectations are not much higher than our own.

N O V E L S.

The History of Ned Evans. 4 Vols. 12mo. 14s. Boards. Robinsons. 1796.

The character and adventures of Ned Evans bear occasionally too close a resemblance to Fielding's inimitable Tom Jones; and Molly Price is a faint copy from Moll Seagrim. These volumes, however, are valuable for the sentiments of piety which they contain; the descriptions and incidents sometimes rise above mediocrity, and no-where offend against delicacy or good morals. Many readers may be entertained and improved, and none will be injured by the work.

Woodland Cottage, a Novel. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Sewed. Hookham and Carpenter. 1796.

The respectable list of subscribers, whose names are affixed to these volumes, will, we hope, make them answer the laudable purpose for which the writer has taken up her pen. More rectitude of principle, than powers of imagination, is displayed in her production; but if it is not entitled to high praise, neither is it deserving of censure; young persons may find from the perusal of it amusement and benefit. We would just hint, that the discovery of foundlings to be of noble birth is become too trite and hack-nied a novel incident: and the introduction of an insipid story, wholly unconnected with, and independent of, the principal narrative, merely to swell the volumes, would be unpardonable at the bar of criticism, and requires for its apology the motives which induced this lady to become an author.

The Comforts of Arabella, the Daughter of Amanda. 12mo. 1s. Johnson. 1796.

Amanda, having been seduced from the path of honour, retires into the country on a small income, becomes an exemplary pattern of piety and virtue, and employs her time in insinuating the best precepts into the mind of her daughter Arabella; Amanda dies, and Arabella gives an interesting account of the education she received from her mother. The book is written in a pleasing style, and calculated to promote a reliance on the protection of the deity, and at the same time to dissipate the terrors of idle superstition.

Matilda and Elizabeth : a Novel. By the Authors of Honoria Somerville, Rainsford Park, the Benevolent Quixote, &c. &c. 4 Vols. 12mo. 12s. Sewed. Law. 1796.

There is nothing in this novel to distinguish it from the generality of publications of a similar nature. It is written in letters, and a variety of *personages*, rather than *characters*, are introduced—the ladies paragons of *beauty* and delicacy—the lovers, of generosity and fidelity. The obstacles which oppose their wishes are, as is usual and easily effected in works of fiction, in due time removed, serving but to contrast and give a higher zest to their felicity. We are informed—

‘ That temporal evils, if we bear them with fortitude and resignation, and do not endeavour to extricate ourselves from them by improper means, are generally productive of good, even in this life’—

a false and a feeble morality ! It is added—

‘ A few years hence, whether the road of life has been strewed with flowers, or covered with thorns, will be very immaterial, provided we have not loitered too long in gathering the former, nor suffered ourselves to be impeded by the latter.’

Surely this is a consolation equally trite and poor. Few novelists know how to paint the passions, or to delineate manners : their portraits are tame and spiritless, fashioned after one insipid model of ideal perfection. To those who seek only to beguile the passing hour, who read for amusement, and do not discriminate too nicely, the present production may afford a perfectly innocent entertainment : if it does not give them any further insight into the affections of the human heart, and the motives of action, it will neither corrupt their imaginations nor vitiate their taste.

The Genius : or, the Mystericus Adventures of Don Carlos de Grandez. By the Marquis Von Grosse. Translated from the German, by Joseph Trapp, Translator of Stoeber's Life of Linnæus, Picture of Italy, &c. &c. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Sewed. Allen and West. 1796.

In imitation of some of his more successful countrymen, who have harrowed up our imaginations with tales of magic and mysterious horror, the present writer has introduced a sufficient number of ghostly stories and marvellous adventures—in the recital of which, he has not more grossly violated the laws of nature and probability, than those of composition. The principal part of the story consists in a wretched imitation of the account of the secret tribunal, in the popular novel of Herman of Unna. Events equally ridiculous, unconnected, and uninteresting, are jumbled together, without method or meaning, resembling the wild ravings of a maniac. The whole production seems an abortive conception, miserably executed, and as ill translated.

The Adventures of a Pin, supposed to be related by Himself, Himself, or Itself. 12mo. 3s. Scovell. Lee. 1796.

We hope the writer of these Adventures is in earnest, in the last paragraph of his Preface. The best fate which we can wish to his performance, and the fate which most probably awaits it, is (in his own language) 'a gentle dip in the waters of oblivion.'

H U S B A N D R Y.

Large Farms, recommended in a national View. A Reply to Mr. Wright's Address to the Public on the Monopoly of Small Farms. 8vo. 1s. Scatcherd. 1796.

This pamphlet is a dogmatical and illiberal attack on Mr. Wright's benevolent plan to increase the number of small farms *. The subject is of great public concern; and, exclusively of the *hauteur* and personality with which the present writer has treated it, many of his remarks are undoubtedly entitled to attention. That large farms are the better calculated to promote improvements in agriculture, cannot be denied; it is, however, of still more serious importance that the markets should be properly supplied, and that the quantity and price of a necessary article of subsistence should not continue to depend on the avarice or caprice of opulent farmers. This is an evil that loudly demands a remedy; and we think that some regulation in the way of excise would be peculiarly efficacious.

Hints for promoting a Bee Society. 8vo. 6d. Darton and Harvey. 1796.

Whether societies be the best modes of promoting objects of public economy, is probably a question which will admit of some doubt. The writer of these Hints, whom we understand to be Dr. Lettsom, may possibly be able to determine the point, having dealt pretty largely in matters of this kind. Leaving it therefore to his decision, we shall proceed to the pamphlet.

We think with him that many objects of profit and national advantage have been strangely overlooked and neglected, while the spirit of colonising and cultivating distant possessions has rapidly, though prejudicially, increased. This, however, has little to do with the subject of the present tract.

That the humble industry of the useful bee has not been sufficiently encouraged, we have no hesitation in allowing; but we cannot think that the utility of its labours will be most successfully promoted by the institution of a society, and the offering of premiums.

If, however, the doctor's project be carried into execution, we may, without much doubt, expect *luminous* orations and *profound* disquisitions concerning the nature of honey, the proper food of

* See Crit. Rev. Vol. XVI. p. 353.

the bee, the most convenient mode of taking the honey, and the best manner of constructing the hive, &c.

In the space of twenty miles round the metropolis, the doctor supposes that 50,000 bee-hives might be maintained, which, upon an average, would produce as many guineas annually in honey and wax, articles of great use in every family.

He has subjoined a plate representing a bee-hive, of a pyramidal form, constructed with small glasses or cupolas, which can easily be removed without disturbing the industrious inhabitants. Four hundred of these glasses are sufficient for a whole colony of bees.

FAST SERMONS.

Observations on the general Fast of the Year 1796. By the Rev. William Agutter, M. A. 12mo. 2d. Rivingtons. 1796.

We have heard of a person converting the Whole Duty of Man into a general satire on a neighbourhood: a fast day seems to afford a good opportunity of abusing our enemies at home and abroad. All the iniquities of the French are collected together *en masse*: the miscreants, as they are called; at home are not spared; some reflections are interspersed on our own failings, and a few parts of scripture are brought together to complete the mixture. But if the intention of a fast were to impress on a nation a due sense of its manifold sins, and to suggest the proper means of correcting them, we should expect very different observations: we should expect, to make use of an old fable, that a preacher would excite his hearers to look on their own and their neighbour's failings with exactly the opposite glasses to those used in this publication.

A Sermon preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, in the Abbey Church, Westminster, on Wednesday, March 9, 1796; being the Day appointed by his Majesty's Proclamation for a general Fast. By William Lord Bishop of Exeter. 4to. 1s. Payne. 1796.

A strange mixture of politics and religion: on the one hand christianity is vindicated against those who assert that it is inimical to civil liberty, and the proofs are taken from the words of scripture, and the conduct and apologies of the early Christians; on the other hand insinuations are thrown out against the French and many of our own countrymen in such a manner as christianity certainly does not justify. The preacher tells us—

‘We are encouraged to meet the paradox which the wild violence of republican frenzy hath brought into discussion, by denouncing and abolishing the Christian religion, as the sworn foe of political liberty.’ p. 8.

It is not the wild violence of republican frenzy, which has brought
this

this accusation; for the accusation has been common in all ages, and under all forms of government: and the wild violence of republican frenzy has been, in general, guilty, and was particularly so in our own country in the last century, of carrying the bounds of civil liberty under the supposed direction of christianity, to a greater extent than was compatible with the welfare of society.

His lordship vindicates the liberty and equality of man under the Christian dispensation; he properly dwells upon it from the address we are taught to make to God, under the title of 'our father,' and he reprobates the 'wicked politicians who are always on the watch to take advantage of the low estate of one part of mankind to depress the other.' But highly as we approve of these sentiments, justice compels us to observe, that his lordship does not seem to carry his principles to their full extent.

'Whenever,' says he, 'either unprincipled politicians, or mistaken zealots, have thought it for their purpose to throw any obstacles in the way of religious liberty, the great expedient on which the former most depended for the success of their design, has been to prevent the sacred oracles being read, by discredit and ridicule, and the latter by prohibiting the study of them, as the irreconcilable enemy of all usurped dominion over the consciences of men.' P. 14.

Has his lordship not read the chief methods used by the Roman emperors during the ten first famous persecutions? Has he never seen the statutes made against various sects of Christians in our own country, many of which to this day are unrepealed? Or, with the Test Act before his eyes, is the following language proper?

'Suffice it therefore to say, that in the one moral maxim of doing unto all men as we would they should do unto us, we have a code of liberty and toleration, which tyranny will never be able to annul, nor the craft of enemies to explain away.' P. 12.

On the insinuations against the French and the reformers at home, we forbear to dwell, since it is better to let them rest in oblivion, than to inflame the passions against those abroad, to whom the throne holds out the olive branch of reconciliation, or against our countrymen, who, if in error, deserve to be treated with a greater degree of christian forbearance. From the pulpit we wish to hear of nothing but the confirmation of the glad tidings, 'peace and good will towards men.'

*A Sermon, preached at Whitby on the Fast Day, March 9, 1796.
By the Rev. T. Watson. 8vo. 1s. Murray and Highley. 1796.*

The question on the justice and necessity of the present war gives occasion to the preacher to observe, that 'the pulpit of all others is the most improper place for such discussions, whether it be to vindicate or to censure.' He considers war 'as one of the

fore judgments of God, springing from our lusts, and as a punishment for our sins.' In this point of view it may justly excite some religious impressions on a serious mind: but why should they be interrupted by digressions on the fraternisation plan of the French, their irreligion, their alteration of the calendar, which the preacher evidently does not comprehend, and by sarcasms on the new philosophy? We shall not cease to repeat, that a fast sermon, on the grounds that war is a fore judgment from God, and that the nation engaged in it is called by it to repentance and reformation, cannot but edify the hearers; but that when the sins of the enemy are painted in the most glowing colours, there is danger that, instead of self-examination and repentance, the sermon will produce sentiments of pride and self-satisfaction, of animosity and contempt towards the sinners, instead of detestation of their crimes. The sermon before us might, with very little alteration, be suited to the consecration of a Whitby privateer, on its first cruise against the republicans of France.

A Sermon, preached at Wickham, in the County of Southampton, on Wednesday, March 9, 1796, being the Day appointed by his Majesty's Proclamation for a general Fast. By Joseph Pickering, M. A. &c. 4to. 1s. Gardner. 1796.

Some very good remarks on justice and humility, which might naturally excite some of the parishioners of Wickham to desire to read that in their closets, which they heard in church with edification. To the parishioners in general the sermon is dedicated; and though they will be most interested in the perusal, yet we recommend to them to lend it to their neighbours.

A Sermon preached before the Honourable House of Commons, at the Church of St. Margaret, Westminster, on Wednesday, March 9, 1796, being the Day appointed by his Majesty's royal Proclamation, to be observed as a Day of solemn Fasting and Humiliation. By Robert Holmes, D. D. &c. 4to. 1s. Payne. 1796.

The parable of the unfruitful tree is explained rather drily, and the preacher falls into the common mistake of accuracy in displaying his neighbours' faults, instead of probing with the utmost solicitude the vices and sins of his own countrymen. Thus he speaks of the legislature of a neighbouring nation—

'We have seen the spirit of the atheist and the libertine hold the legislative authority of a christian nation near us. We have seen it gain on the simple by insatuating their simplicity; on the vehement by impelling their vehemence; on the malignant by exasperating their malignity; and thus, by adjusting the snare to the ruling passion of every man, ensure its own use of them all. We have seen it stifle the charities of humanity; cancel the restraints of virtue; discard the sanctions of the gospel; and, either by treacherous agency or open war, push its principles against the altar and the

the throne of other christian countries. We have seen it hold out to ambition and tyranny, to malice and rapine, their several expedients of legalized crime ; and under the shock of factions, all rising and raging and falling in blood, aggravate on every change the miseries of the publick.' P. 28.

Religion essential to the Being and Happiness of Society: a Sermon for the Fast Day, March 9, 1796. By Alexander Hewat, D. D. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1796.

Dr. Hewat tells his hearers that he has lived in ticklish times—

' I have known both what it is to live under the government of law, and in a state of wild anarchy, where legal authority was suspended, and the popular voice reigned without controul ; and cannot help deprecating the return of such ticklish times.' P. 21.

Hence he pronounces, *ex cathedra*, his exhortations—

' In the days of peril, it behoves every lover of humanity and justice, every friend to personal property and national security, to rally round the standard of our king and constitution, and stand forth in the public defence against every enemy, foreign and domestic. Had our foes obtained the object of their wishes, and succeeded in their diabolical plots and conspiracies, where would we have been this day ?' P. 27.

It is unnecessary to pass any judgment upon such language from a Christian pulpit ; but we might observe that the boys of Eton and Winchester would tickle the doctor for his language on republics and republicans. They would tell him that, if Catiline was, Cicero was also, a republican : and they would recommend to him the orations of the latter, before he pretends to give political instruction.

RELIGIOUS.

The Good Man, and Faithful Minister, made eminently useful. A Funeral Sermon, preached at Stepney Meeting, June 19, 1796, occasioned by the Death of the Rev. Samuel Brewer, B. D. fifty Years Pastor of the Independent Church in that Place, who departed this Life, June 11, 1796. Together with the Oration delivered at the Interment. By George Ford. 8vo. 1s. Matthews. 1796.

From Acts xi. 24, Mr. Ford institutes a comparison between the piety and public services of Mr. Brewer and of Barnabas ; and the justice of the application, we doubt not, was acknowledged by his hearers. The sermon is of what is called the evangelical cast, and in many places is affecting. It was not indeed difficult to touch the feelings by recapitulating the useful labours of so long a period as fifty years, and the happy conclusion of them by a tranquil and pious end. A few particulars of his life are given ; and this tribute to his memory will no doubt be highly acceptable to his numerous flock.

The Principles and Duties of Christianity inculcated and enforced : a Sermon, preached at Sunbury, Middlesex, on Wednesday, May 25th, 1795, being the Anniversary Meeting of two Friendly Societies of Poor Tradesmen and Day-Labourers in that Parish, instituted for their Mutual Support in Cases of Sickness, Accident, or Old Age. By James Cowe, M. A. Vicar. 4to. 1s. Robson. 1796.

In this discourse, Mr. Cowe considers what ought to be the rule of his hearers' conduct towards mankind in general, what particular duties the gospel requires of men who live in the same city or neighbourhood, how they ought to behave towards those who differ from them in religious opinions, and how they ought to conduct themselves in their respective families, and as members of the same society. On these points, our author's opinions are unexceptionable. He connects charity and candour closely with christianity, and inculcates such precepts as are excellently adapted to the melioration of society in general, and particularly calculated to improve that kind of society for whose use the sermon was published.

Instruction to the Children of Sunday Schools and other charitable Seminaries of Learning ; designed for the Promotion of their Welfare in this Life, and of their Happiness in that which is to come. By Abraham Crocker. 8vo. 4d. Wills. 1796.

With some good precepts, are mixed many theological notions far above the comprehension of children. The author has not sufficiently considered the apostle's mode of giving milk to those who are not capable of stronger food : he may very easily discover his error by asking a child a few questions on the subject of almost any chapter in his book ; and from the answers, he will perceive that the scholar did not understand the greater part of what he had been reading.

P O E T I C A L.

A Sketch from the Landscape, a Didactic Poem. Addressed to R. P. Knight, Esq. with Notes, Illustrations, and a Postscript. 4to. 2s. 6d. Faulder.

The art of gardening, we thought, had been one of those quiet and elegant occupations which tend to sooth and harmonise the mind ; an art which, interfering with no interest, shocking no prejudice, and awakening no passion, might be resorted to as a refuge from the noise and contentious bustle of the world. But we were mistaken :—its different systems can furnish matter for angry disputes and keen sarcasm, nor are they to be speedily terminated. The author of the *Sketch* has in this little piece parodied Mr. Knight's *Landscape* *, not without some degree of humour. An advertisement is prefixed, in which he quotes from Mason's Gar-

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XIV. p. 315.

den and Mr. Knight's Landscape, two parallel passages, not, he says, to support the accusation of plagiarism, as Mr. Knight has denied having ever read the former poem,—but to justify the suspicion he had expressed. The passages, which are indeed remarkably near, are as follows—

‘ ENGLISH GARDEN, Book 1st.

‘ ————— Generous youth
Whoe’er thou art, that listenest to my lay,
And feel’st thy soul assent to what I sing,
Happy art thou if thou can’st call thy own
Such scenes as these; where Nature and where Time
Have work’d congenial; where a scatter’d host
Of antique oaks darken thy sidelong hills;
While rushing through their branches, rifted cliffs
Dart their white heads, and glitter through the gloom.
More happy still, if one superior rock
Bear on its brow the shiver’d fragment huge
Of some old Norman fortress; happier far,
Ah, then most happy, if thy vale below
Wash, with the crystal coolness of its rills,
Some mouldering abbey’s ivy-vested wall.’

‘ LANDSCAPE, Book 2d.

‘ Bless’d is the man in whose sequester’d glade,
Some ancient abbey’s walls diffuse their shade;
With mouldering windows pierced, and turrets crown’d,
And pinnacles with clinging ivy bound.

‘ Bless’d too is he, who, ’midst his tufted trees,
Some ruin’d castle’s lofty towers sees,
Imbosom’d high upon the mountain’s brow,
Or nodding o’er the stream, that glides below.’ p. ii.

If, however, the author of the Sketch finds himself obliged to take Mr. Knight’s word that he has not read the *English Garden*, he tells him, not without some show of reason, that he ought to have read it.

‘ It was scarcely possible to have conceived a professor sitting down in his dictatorial chair to teach the world how to create landscape, who could be so perfectly satisfied with his own notions as not to wish to know what had been said before on the same subject in one of the most beautiful poems in the English language.’ p. ii.

The Postscript contains remarks on Mr. Price’s work, in which, after acknowledging that ‘ Mr. Price has as well marked the limits of the picturesque and the beautiful, as that *debateable ground* will admit of,’ he says, truly enough, that—

‘ The higher style of the picturesque is not much in the power of the improver. For example, the landscapes of Rubens are admired in the Essay for being full of the picturesque accidents of nature;

nature; among these, the most striking are; "the effects of thunder and lightning, torrents rolling down, trees torn up by the roots, and the 'dead bodies of men and animals.'" Mr. P. has given a pleasant caricature of an improver working upon a picture of Claude. A picturesque imitator of Rubens, attempting to transfer these accompaniments from the canvas to nature, might be sketched by way of companion, with features no less ridiculous. In gardening, I conceive, we must only hope for the picturesque in the wilder parts of the scene; and here art must tread

"With unsandal'd foot,

Printless, as though the place were holy ground."

It is the beautiful, which is more within the reach of the improver. This is surely to be found in the undulating play of smooth verdure, in the contrast of different trees happily disposed, and in the endless variety of foliage and flowers of humbler growth. All these circumstances are charming in reality, though they may not furnish good subjects for the pencil. The fastidious eye, which turns from such a scene with disgust, because there is no temptation to take out the sketch-book, is, I think, not much to be envied. Hollow lanes, "ruts and rubbish," burdock and thistles, produce a very pleasing effect in their proper places; an exuberant beard is also a most picturesque ornament to the human countenance; but shaven turf and "prim gravel walks," like a smooth chin, are sacrifices to the comfortable (a principle not totally to be forgotten in laying out grounds,) which, I apprehend, cannot well be avoided; and even these, if Mr. P.'s remarks with regard to avoiding monotony be attended to, are in themselves by no means destitute of beauty.' P. 25.

For our parts, we think there is room for different schools of gardening, as well as of painting or poetry, and should be very sorry to see an *act of uniformity* for the fine arts.

The Alps, a Moral and Descriptive Poem of the Great Haller. Translated from the German, by Henry Barrett. 8vo. 1s. Parsons. 1796.

The character of Haller, the German poet, is well-known: the descriptive poem, entitled the Alps, possesses distinguished merit; and those who can read a translation in prose with satisfaction, (and many we apprehend can do this) make allowances for a writer who tells us, that though a native of this island, another language is vernacular to him, and forgive a few inaccuracies, either of the translator or printer, may receive considerable pleasure from this petty brochure. As to lord Chesterfield's advice, Mr. Barrett had better have omitted it.

We extract the following passage as a specimen of this work—

'If nature gave thee but a hard and rugged soil, yet thy plough can furrow its stony clods, and thy sowing vegetates to ripeness; if

her hand piled up the Alps to sequester thee from the world, she knew man is to himself the greatest plague; limpid water quenches thy thirst, milk satiates thy hunger; appetite seasons too the taste for acorns: though the deep entrails of thy mountains are pregnant only with iron, Peru tumified with golden ore, would be happy to be so poor: where liberty is paramount, every toil becomes gentler; flowers genial shoot upon rocks, and Boreas temperates his rage.

‘Mountaineers happy by the absence of noisum riches; wealth is not productive of a bliss equal to your poverty: concord dwells amidst your peaceful souls; no flushing vanity ushers in the apple of discord; here pleasure is not mingled with the anguish of fear; life is blithsome, but death is not hideous; here reason guided by nature is in quest of necessities and deems the rest a burden; untaught, unconstrained, the precepts of Seneca, and the examples of Epictetus through their manners reign.

‘Here are unknown those distinctions, devised by a subtle pride, which injure virtue, to honor vice; no loitering dullness complains of the lingering hours; with labour the day, with repose the night steal away; no sublime genius wings his thoughts to the delusory heights of ambition; no solicitude for the morrow chills the glee of the present day; with impartial hand, in a measure constantly the same, liberty dispenses to these inhabitants contentment, fatigue and repose; no discontented being jars with fortune: man eats, man sleeps, man loves, and blesses his fate.’ p. 3.

Meditations by Moonlight, a Poem. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1796.

The author of these effusions observes in his Advertisement, that he has no poetical reputation to lose; and we think it certain that he will acquire none by publishing his *Meditations*: they never rise to the sublime of poetry, and contain many lines and sentiments palpably not original. There is, however, a pleasing vein of moral and religious reflection throughout the poem.

L A W.

Cases argued and ruled at Nisi Prius in the Courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas, from Easter Term 33 Geo. 3, to Hilary Term 36 Geo. 3, inclusive, by Isaac Espinasse, Esq. Barrister at Law. Royal 8vo. 15s. Boards. Butterworth. 1795.

As the decisions at nisi prius are subject to be over-ruled and denied as law, when they come to be discussed in the courts above, it cannot be expected that any book, professedly confined to the report of these decisions, can be received by the profession as an absolute authority. This has hitherto prevented the publication of any separate notes relating to this branch of the judicial business of the courts; and we cannot, after the most mature consideration, say that the present collection of cases is likely to obtain an establishment in the law library.

Many of the points seem to have been determined under the peculiar

culiar circumstances of the respective cases in which they occurred, and are consequently not reducible to any one fixed general principle; others have been since over-ruled in the courts above; and several appear to have been decided with great doubt and hesitation.

Mr. Elphinastle has, therefore, been rather injudicious in retaining those cases, as their insertion must, in some instances, mislead those who are not in the habit of attending the courts, and whose judgment can only be formed by the consultation of printed authorities. He is, however, not deficient in accuracy and precision, two very essential qualities in a reporter; and as it is his intention to continue the publication, we would recommend it to him in future to be more select: if he is, the work may become more acceptable to the profession.

The Curates Act examined, and its Advantages and Disadvantages fairly discussed; containing Observations how to render its Operation effectual, and to counteract the Dangers of some of its Clauses; with earnest Addresses to the Members of the late House of Commons, the New Parliament, and the Beneficed Clergy, and an humble Apology to the Right Reverend the Bishops and Metropolitans: concluding with a Word of Advice to the Curates. By a Country Curate. 8vo. 1s. Allen and West. 1796.

To men of liberal feelings, the distresses of the inferior clergy have long been a subject of regret: nor, till a very recent period, has the condition of that respectable but indigent class of the community experienced the efficient attention of the legislature. The spirit of the act passed for this purpose in the last parliament receives every acknowledgment of gratitude from the writer of the present pamphlet, in the name of himself and his brother curates; he, however, points out some obstacles to its beneficial operation, and suggests the means by which they may be removed. On a topic so very liable to excite the animosity of ecclesiastical partisans, we have the pleasure to observe that the remarks of the 'Country Curate' are throughout modest, sensible, and impartial; and that they may be read to great advantage by all the descriptions of persons to whom they are addressed.

A Plan for the Commutation of Tythes, the Extension of Agriculture, the Relief of the Farmers, the Peasantry, and the Poor, without disturbing the existing Government. 4to. 2s. Ridgway. 1794.

This performance is one of the most extraordinary that has hitherto come in our way. It is written with no small portion of vigour, and information on particular topics; whilst, in the general, we are put off with bold assertions, where argument is required, —and the deliriums of a projector, for demonstrative proofs.

The universal panacea held forth, is 'an act of parliament, declaring all the waste lands in the kingdom national property; all tithes in kind abolished; and erecting a national board, to be composed

posed of commissioners and other proper officers,' for remedying every grievance. The rules laid down for the guidance of their conduct are not less arbitrary than numerous: but the reformer subjoins, with great complacency, 'that many other measures might be suggested to render the regulations complete and effectual.' Of those proposed, however, we will add, that if the half were carried into execution, the basis of all property would be subverted, and the order of society in this kingdom abolished.

M E D I C A L.

A preliminary Introduction to the Art of Sea-Bathing; wherein is shewn its Nature, Power, and Importance; with some necessary Hints for the Attention of Visitors, at the Watering Places, previous to, and during a Course of Bathing. By John Anderson, M. D. F. A. S. C. M. S. &c. Physician to, and a Director of, the General Sea-Bathing Infirmary, at Margate. 8vo. 1s. Dilly. 1795.

In introducing this pamphlet to the attention of the profession, Dr. Anderson takes care to apprise his readers that it is in compliance with the request of some highly distinguished gentlemen of the faculty, that he undertakes to write on the nature, power, influence, and effect of sea-water and sea-bathing, hot and cold; and that his manuscripts have been submitted to be read before a *learned medical society* in London. Authors are too frequently seduced by the flattery of friendship, or the approbation of *learned societies*, to present their crude performances to the attention of the public.

In this publication there seems to be little to admire, or indeed that can afford instruction to the class of readers for which it is professedly written. Judging from the present specimen, the doctor would appear to be much better acquainted with the writings of poets than physicians. A sample or two will afford sufficient proof of the truth of our assertion, and of the merit of the doctor's production.

'Nine years ago, says he, I happened to come to Margate in quest of strength, after a long and severe fever; and receiving a very sensible benefit the first season by sea-bathing, and the salubrious air of Thanet, I was thereon led to make inquiry into their special effects on other visitors, and what I actually saw, and was credibly informed of by some of the bathing guides, I thought important, and it not being generally known, I immediately published it in my Medical Remarks on Evacuations. Since that time, I have had frequent opportunity of observing more minutely their effects on others under various states, circumstances, and conditions of body: in simple and complicated, acute and chronic, casual and inherent complaints; and every year's experience gives manifold proofs of their very great utility to health: they restore and preserve. There are but few distempers incident to human nature

in which either the cold, the warm, or vapour sea-water bath, and the air of a salubrious spot on the margin of the main, such as Thanet, are not equal to meet and prove more or less beneficial in. I have seen, on a well directed course, diseases not only palliated, but many cured by them, after having baffled the power of medicine in rational artists hands. These baths are certainly most excellent auxiliaries to medicine, diet, exercise, and amusement, as these are to them, which accounts for the great flux and re-flux of company, from the king to the beggar, to, and from the sea-watering places, during the temperate seasons;

“ Where baths give vigour and the waters health.”

‘ Or, as a late ingenious Margate visitant to mount Parnassus describes it;

“ The briny wave doth thousands save,

Alike from grave and crutches;

Makes aged young, the feeble strong,

Or beggar, duke, or dukes.” COLEMAN.’ P. 15.

Of the properties of the sea water we have the following very luminous account—

‘ Sea-water is not a mere simple homogeneous elemental fluid *simplex simpliciter*, but nature’s richly saturated compound. It contains, say chemical philosophers, a muriatic bitter purging salt, calcarious earth, and sulphureous bitumen: and Boyle, and other naturalists agree in there being a subtle ætherial spirit in water, which some call fixed air, some phlogiston or inflammable air, besides a pure air, which airs become elastic, as seen by the sparkling air bubbles.

‘ The proportion of the principles of sea-water vary in some distant seas, and in deep and in shallow water: some say the sea is more salt in summer than in winter, warmer in a tempest than in a calm. There is in sea-water, besides its original native principles, the impregnation of submarine plants, such as the quercus marinus, or sea-wreck, and other plants; the slime, sperm, and excrementitious parts of fishes; their, and other dead bodies, rain, dew, hail, snow, springs, and the disemboguing of rivers and ponds: together with fossils, minerals, and the refuse of ships, &c. the combination of all which heterogeneous particles render sea-water, on stagnation and being close kept, quickly corruptible. After a long calm at sea the stench is very offensive, and that which issues forth on opening a cask of sea-water, that has been kept for some time in the hold of a ship, is intolerable, nay deadly. If it were not for the tides there would be no living near the sea in a calm. As the ærial spirit in waters is extremely fugitive, they are all better drank on the spot than at a distance, and the more they are crowded with their principles they spoil the sooner.’ P. 16.

After this the doctor says—

‘ And

' And my not meeting with a scrip on the subject in any of the libraries that afforded me the least satisfaction, I had to persevere in wading through thick shades of darkness till I came into fair light, when I clearly saw the impropriety of their receiving all that came without exception, as if sea-bathing was an universal sovereign specific remedy for all complaints, whatever were their nature or cause; was proper at all times, and suited to all constitutions, temperaments, states, and conditions of body, modes of living; and that by one mode of bathing only, and of pushing the bath indiscriminately beyond what nature can bear. Can there be any error theoretical or practical, more absurd or unphilosophical? Art is subservient to nature; to relieve, polish, and improve nature. If nature and art do not go hand in hand, and mutually accord, nothing will be perfected or established in any art or science. Nature will be led, but not driven.' P. 19.

Surely it neither required much *wading*, nor much knowledge of any kind, to find out that sea-bathing is not proper for every constitution, or in every complaint.

An Essay on Indigestion and its Consequences, or Advice to Persons affected with Debility of the Digestive Organs, Nervous Disorders, Gout, Dropsy, &c. wherein Rules are pointed out respecting Diet, Regimen, and Air; illustrated with Cases, to prove the Effects of a new Medicine, recommended for the Cure thereof, established upon Sixteen Years extensive Practice. Also, Remarks on Sea or Cold Bathing, necessary to be known by every Valetudinarian and Convalescent; distinguishing the particular States of the Constitution, in which the Use of Bathing will be found salutary or pernicious. Likewise explaining the Reason why inspiring the Sea Air contributes more to the Recovery of Health than that of Cities and Inland Places. By R. Squirrel, M. D. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Sold by the Author. 1795.

Dr. Squirrel, in this publication, steps forward to emulate the Matthewses, the Solomons, and Brodums of the day; and chuses rather to advertise his '*tonic powders*' in an octavo book, than, after the fashion of his rivals, in the columns of a newspaper. Some of the learned doctor's instructions terrify us not a little; for in pointing out those cases in which '*cold bathing* may be used with *advantage*,' we find the following list: '*indigestion—gout—fever—jaundice—dropsy—hæmorrhages—violent evacuations.*'

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Remarks on the very Inferior Utility of Classical Learning. By W. Stevenson. 8vo. 1s. Symonds. 1796.

Those who have cultivated classical literature with success, and are accustomed to admire the beautiful productions of Greek and Roman poets, historians, orators, moralists, and philosophers, will

not be disposed to adopt the sentiments of one who depreciates the objects of their study; and many will be of opinion, that the writer of this pamphlet undervalues that knowledge which he has had no opportunities of acquiring, and wishes to explode those pursuits with which he is unacquainted; while some will consider his attempt as merely flowing from the modern rage of innovation. But we will admit that he is actuated by motives of regard for the improvement of youth, and by a conscientious desire of correcting the present system of education.

He observes, that 'the greater part of seven years is generally devoted, almost exclusively, to the study of Greek and Latin.' But we may ask, who are the young persons whose time is thus employed? Not those who are intended by their parents for trade and manufactures, but such as are destined either for one of the three learned professions, or for no profession whatever. To these, classical learning is a good foundation, on which a superstructure of general knowledge may be raised; and, though it may be deemed more ornamental than useful, it is by no means so destitute of utility as Mr. Stevenson would wish his readers to believe. It cannot be denied, however, that too great a portion of time is allotted to this branch of study; for, in many public seminaries, even ten years are devoted to it. We cannot but think, that, in a third part of this time, boys would acquire, under proper instructions, as competent an acquaintance with the classics, as they now do in their long course of philological study. Ample time would then be allowed for an early cultivation of philosophy and science, which are at present too much neglected by classical students.

The Case of Captain Downing. With the Proceedings of a general Court Martial. And Copies of Letters to and from the Duke of Richmond, Sir Charles Morgan, Judge Advocate General, &c. &c. With the Opinion of Counsel concerning the Legality of the Trial. By Captain John Downing, in the Royal Regiment of Artillery. 8vo. 1s. 1796.

In this publication captain Downing complains of not having obtained justice in a dispute of a pecuniary nature with a private in his own corps. He denies the competence of courts martial to decide under the predicament in which he represents himself to have stood; and grounds his opposition on the following objections—

'First objection—

'Is a party a legal evidence, swearing for his own advantage, and ought it to convict? Second—

'Can a general court martial dispense with the 74th clause of the mutiny act without vitiating their sentence?' p. 12.

It must be evident to our readers, that a subject of this nature is scarcely within the jurisdiction of criticism; and for that reason we decline

decline entering into the merits of captain Downing's case, which indeed seems to have obtained little regard, even from the parties in whose hands the power of redress resides.

Considerations on the Attempt of the East-India Company to become Manufacturers in Great-Britain. 4to. 2s. Sewell. 1796.

After some preliminary remarks on the nature of exclusive grants or privileges, and on the importance of the silk trade to the manufactures and revenue of the country, this writer announces a determination of the East India Company 'to commence *manufacturers* in Great Britain, by *throwing their own silk* in large quantities, for which purpose a number of mills have been hired by them.' The reason assigned for this by the company is, that they, deeming it necessary to enlarge their imports of Bengal raw-silk, have devised a plan, the object of which is to occasion an increased consumption of the commodity, by throwing some portion of it into *organzine*, to serve as a substitute for part of the organzine at present imported from Italy. And as the merchants and others interested in the silk trade have objected to the measure, the company have published some Reports to correct any mistaken ideas that may prevail.

These Reports are examined by our author with great acuteness; and the general inference he draws is against this 'illegal and mischievous interference of the India Company in the internal manufactures of this country.' One argument used by the company is, that 'the supply of the raw commodity has been, until of late years, wholly, and now is in great part, furnished from countries no otherwise connected with Great Britain than through the medium of a commercial intercourse, which it is not impossible, under a continuance of the present distracted state of continental politics, may hereafter be rendered highly precarious. This our author repels by asking, Whether the territorial possessions in India are settled on a firmer basis of tranquillity than those of the different governments of Europe,—whether the power of the company is such as to preclude any apprehension of disturbance, whether it has not experienced resistance from the native princes of that vast continent, and may not afford a temptation to our European enemies? The suspensions of intercourse produced by the political agitations in Europe, he thinks, will doubtless be temporary: because, after all, convenience and necessity will compel neighbours to be neighbours. But his more immediate arguments regard the respective qualities of the Bengal and Italian silks. He asserts that it is not pretended by the most sanguine abettors of the company's experiment, that their commodity can ever be expected completely to rival that of Italy. 'How then,' he asks, 'would the silk manufacturer, already smarting under the neglect of the public, be able once more to fix the caprice of fashion in his favour, if he should imprudently substitute the dingy and woolly produce of Bengal, for the brilliant and firm staple of Italian organzine?' He then enters upon an examination

ation of the company's principal Report, and explains at great length the delusion which they have practised on themselves and the public, concluding in these words—

‘ The company, in throwing their own silk, must be considered as violating at least the spirit of their charter; for though no express prohibition of such a measure can be adduced, yet the very title of the company, namely, that of merchants trading to and from the East-Indies, the views with which it was incorporated, and those under which its present existence is permitted, cannot be extended farther in construction than to recognize the company as an efficient and responsible commercial medium for exporting and importing large quantities of various valuable commodities. It is highly improbable that any project, on the part of the company, to commence manufacturers in this country, ever entered into the contemplation of the legislature, nor does it appear that any tacit encouragement to the purpose can be fairly inferred. When the last renewal of the company's charter was under discussion in parliament, the expediency of continuing the exclusive privileges of the company was strongly disputed, even in a mercantile point of view: how much more then would it have been exposed to the fate of annihilation, had an idea of its intended interference in our manufactures at all prevailed? the legislature has already displayed much spirit and propriety, in placing the most important parts of the company's establishments under the control of government; and it is to be hoped, that the same high authority, as guardian of the public welfare, will interpose, to check the monopolizing and illegal attempts of the company in the present instance; for it should be remembered, that mercantile companies are incorporated for the benefit of the public, as well as their own advantage; and in proportion as the former consideration is paramount to the latter, it becomes necessary to watch the conduct of such large trading bodies, with a jealous vigilance that shall the better secure the good intended to be produced by their institution.

‘ The silk trade are not alone interested in opposing this innovation of the company; for, should it succeed, who can tell to what a mischievous extent the practice of the principle may be carried? When the company have once tried their strength, it will be at their choice and in their mercy, what branch of manufacture they will next invade—whether they will print their own calicoes; make their own gunpowder; wind, spin, and weave, their own cottons; bake and refine their own sugars; or even manufacture those articles fabricated from our staple domestic produce, and which, by their charter, they are obligated to export. A calamitous alternative would then be the lot of the persons who are now engaged in such manufactures: unable to trade to India, or to cope in this country with the gigantic strides of a manufacturing East-India Company, they must either abandon their pursuits, or be degraded into dependents

dents on the all-sweeping monopolists by whom they are injured. Thus, evils similar to those which the engrossing of small farms has inflicted on the husbandman, would be severely felt by the individual merchant and manufacturer; and thus, the advantages resulting from the various energies and competitions of private capital in our manufactures, would be lost to the community.

‘ There is another topic of great public concern, and which the conductors of this opposition to the schemes of the company approach with anxiety, that the publication of their sentiments may not be misrepresented as a vehicle for extraneous political allusions. A sense of duty, however, conquers the reluctance excited by the fear of prejudice alone; and the deep injury that must arise to our constitution, from the undisturbed progress of the company’s designs, shall be briefly hinted at.

‘ It is a melancholy truth, that the purity of the British senate has been contaminated by the wealth of India.

‘ This comparatively slight infection of the representative body, would be increased to an alarming degree, if the company should extend their manufacturing projects: the unparalleled influence they would, by such means, command in the different towns and boroughs where their manufactories might be established, would entirely change the character of a house of commons—would place in it as the minister of the day, a creature implicitly at their devotion, and would render the freedom and the legitimate powers of our venerable and happy constitution, subservient to the odious domination of a mercantile aristocracy.’ P. 32.

We have not dwelt longer on the subject of this pamphlet than its importance seems to demand. The public will doubtless be anxious to know by what arguments its force can be repelled.

The French Verbs, Regular and Irregular, conjugated, in a short and easy Method: with Rules for the Use of the Tenses, and some Exercises annexed to them. By M. Chardon. 8vo. 1796.

We do not see the necessity of multiplying publications of this kind, unless there be some improvement in the plan or in the execution, which we do not observe in the present pamphlet. The method is, indeed, short and easy; the rules are delivered with perspicuity; and the exercises are adapted to the general capacity of puerile students: but many former productions are equally conducive to the same purpose of instruction.

The author might easily have rendered his English style more idiomatic and correct, by consulting some literary native of this kingdom; and a greater attention to the accuracy of his work might have improved the French part of it. We were astonished to observe a passage so incorrect as the following: ‘ I am very cold, *J’ai très froid.*’ The writer might be expected to have known, that *froid*, when used with the verb *avoir*, is not an adjective, but a substantive; for, though we translate *J’ai froid*, I am cold, *J’ai*

soif, I am thirsty, the words literally imply, *I have cold, I have thirst*; expressions which will not suit the English idiom. But M. Chardon, by making use of the word *très*, which is an adverb, has injured the grammatical construction of the phrase: he ought to have used an adjective with *froid*, and might correctly have said, *J'ai grand froid*. He will probably censure us for presuming to dictate to him in his own language; but we are confident that we are strictly right.

An infallible Method of distinguishing the Gender of all inanimate Objects in the French Language; an useful Supplement for all French Grammars extant. By M. Raymond de la Nougarede. 8d. Robinsons. 1796.

This little work (which consists of only one sheet) will be found useful to the learners of the French language, who are frequently perplexed with the variations of gender. It is executed with regularity and precision.

Rules for playing the Game of Chess. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Symonds. 1796.

This little treatise contains such rules and instructions for playing this celebrated game, as will, we doubt not, be found of considerable utility to beginners. It cannot be expected to offer any thing new, or any elaborate disquisition on the subject; but it at least presents the learner with the great key to the game—the first game of Philidor, with the notes on that game, which (we know not why) have been omitted in the latter editions of his book. We would have recommended to the editor, instead of Philidor's investigation of the gambit of Cunningham, which is now of little use, to have given some of the situations and check-mates of Stamma, which are so well calculated to show the artifice and surprising revolutions of the game.

Hercules and the Carter; a Dialogue between a Poor Man, and a Poor Man's Friend. 12mo. 2d. Rivingtons. 1796.

A specimen of the best use to which the interpretation of fables can be applied; being a very intelligent and salutary lesson of industry and sobriety to the labouring poor.

A New Sequel to Mrs. Barbauld's Lessons, adapted for Children from four to seven Years old. 12mo. 1s. Sael. 1796.

The only objectionable passage which we have remarked in this little work, is in p. 84—'Miss Elizabeth Good, too, had got one of the finest dolls I ever saw, in point of elegance and dress. I am sure no lady need to have been dressed better for any court-day. She had just learned a beautiful little hymn, and that doll was the reward of her diligence.' To bribe a child to piety, is an infallible method of making it an hypocrite; and to bribe it to piety by teaching it a love of fashionable frippery, is an inconsistency too frequent indeed in real life, but which we were sorry to detect in a work otherwise well adapted for the purposes of early education.



CRITICAL REVIEW.

For DECEMBER, 1796.

The History of France, from the Accession of Henry the Third; to the Death of Louis the Fourteenth. Preceded by a View of the Civil, Military, and Political State of Europe, between the Middle, and the Close of the Sixteenth Century. By Nathaniel William Wraxall. Vols. I. II. III. 4to. 3l. 3s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1795.

THE plan of Mr. Wraxall in this work is to give a History of France from the accession of Henry III. to the death of Louis XIV. Of this plan, which is intended to be comprised in six volumes, the first three alone are at present executed: they carry us to the end of the reign of Henry IV. In presenting to the public the history of a country, which vicinity, and the relations that for a number of centuries have subsisted between us, have rendered familiar to the minds of most Englishmen, it is natural to inquire upon what peculiar ground of novelty or of interest the author has built his expectations of rendering his work attractive to the cultivated reader. This question Mr. Wraxall is well prepared to answer, by acquainting us, that his object has been, 'not so much to relate the series of political facts in the reigns he has given, as to delineate the genius, spirit, and character of the French nation during that period;' and those who are acquainted with his former researches into the domestic history of the house of Valois, in which an acquaintance is displayed with many authors not within the usual track of reading, and with his agreeable manner of writing, will not doubt his acquitting himself with honour of the task. It is usual with historians, instead of plunging abruptly into the period of which they treat, to refresh the memory of the reader by a slight sketch of the situation of the different powers connected with their subject; but Mr. Wraxall has extended this introduction to a very unusual length; the whole of the first volume being preliminary. It contains a retrospective view of the history and general sys-

tem of all the different states of Europe, between the middle and the conclusion of the sixteenth century. This part is very agreeably written; it is clear, concise, yet far from dry; and induces a wish that the author had made a separate object of this general history, and continued it to some proper epoch; for we confess we are doubtful of its propriety as an introduction. If, in writing a history of two reigns of France, (and the present publication is no more) the reader is to be supposed so ignorant of the general state of Europe, as to require one third of the work to be employed in introduction, a person who should write a history of Germany would find equal occasion for the same information; and again for the history of Spain, and so on till we should be fatigued with endless repetition. Nevertheless the introductory volume is very well worth attention; we only regret that it is not more of a whole. Though it professes only to begin the account from the middle of the sixteenth century, it often takes it up much higher; and the chapters devoted to Portugal, Tuscany, and Venice, are particularly interesting, as they contain all the brilliant period of those states. The sketch of the Ottoman empire likewise exhibits it in the meridian of its strength and glory under Solymán II. We shall not, however, attempt to select any extracts from this introductory part, but pass on to the second volume, which commences the History of France under the reign of Henry III. The character of this prince, who belied all the promises of his early youth, is delineated with accuracy and spirit; but is less interesting than the events of his reign, agitated as it was by the ambition of the Guises, and shaken by the storms of religious fury. But the order of historical events is only a secondary object in Mr. Waxall's plan; the far greater part of the volume being devoted to a delineation of the manners and state of the age under the different heads of constitution and government, finances, commerce, state of the church, of literature, of society, picture of the court, various particulars of domestic life, tournaments, astrology, characteristic vices and virtues, &c. This is that part of the work in which the curious reader will find the greatest fund of entertainment, as it is that which required the various reading of Mr. Waxall to collect together; for, as he truly says, these particulars 'can only be found in the most patient and laborious perusal, or investigation of almost all the contemporary writers in every branch of science or polite letters.' Of these we shall lay before our readers a few extracts. The abuses of the *farmers-general* were come to such an height, that—

'In 1577, Henry the Third was so egregiously defrauded, that from

from taxes which produced twelve millions of livres, only eight hundred thousand ever entered the treasury. The greater part of the farmers were not natives, but Florentines and Savoyards, who glutted themselves with wealth, and usually returned to spend it in their own country. Catherine of Medecis, herself an Italian, had contributed exceedingly to spread the disorder, by employing foreigners, as receivers or collectors of the revenue. So lucrative was the occupation, that people of all descriptions, noblemen, ladies, and members of the council, contrived to exercise it, and to participate in the general plunder. They were multiplied under Henry the Third, to such a degree, that Tavannes estimates them at thirty thousand. To render the calamity irremediable, they were accustomed to purchase of the king the new taxes, as soon as they came out, and to advance the money which it was calculated they might produce. But, as a recompence for prompt payment, the farmers seldom laid down more than a fourth, and often not a sixth part of the sum, levied by the imposition on the people. We may see in the Memoirs of Sully, a list of the persons who were concerned and interested in the tax upon salt, in 1585. The name of the duchess of Joyeuse, sister to Louisa, wife of Henry the Third, is the first; and stands for no less a sum, than seventy-five thousand crowns. The aggregate amount of the money, thus advanced upon the mortgage of the duty on salt, exceeds a million, six hundred thousand crowns. Villeroi mentions as a fact well known, that two pecuniary edicts, obtained of Henry the Third by his favourites, were sold immediately afterwards to the financiers, for the sum of twelve thousand, and twelve thousand five hundred crowns. The former produced fifty thousand; and the latter sixty thousand crowns.

Such was the facility and criminal prodigality of Henry the Third, that he did not blush to create taxes, which were exclusively meant to enrich his minions and servants. "It was common," says Villeroi, "to see ladies, gentlemen, even valets, and persons of the vilest description, shamelessly pursuing the verification of edicts which they had obtained; soliciting their publication; recommending them as productive, and calling them *their* edicts." Abuses could hardly be carried to a more astonishing point of indecency and enormity. The treasurers, who had the power of distributing, and apportioning the taxes, or impositions, throughout the kingdom, committed equal violations of justice. In order to spare some villages, of which they, or their immediate relations and friends, were the proprietors, they exacted unequal and severe contributions from others, to the oppression of the inferior classes of people. Numbers of wretched peasants, unable to pay the sums thus demanded, were thrown into dungeons, and devoured by vermin, or consumed by disease.' Vol. ii. p. 231.

The states general and the parliaments were the great bulwarks against the power of the crown : but the former were seldom convoked, and the latter were liable to continual insults ; yet in the worst of times they occasionally exhibited marks of spirit worthy of a better constitution. Before the time of Francis I. the French had scarcely any permanent troops ; and till his time the infantry were neglected and despised—

‘ Nothing could be more grotesque and savage than the dress and appearance of the antient foot soldiers under Charles the Eighth, in 1495. They wore their hair long and floating on their shoulders, in order to encrease the fierceness of their aspect ; together with shirts, which had large hanging sleeves, and which they continued to wear for several months, without washing. It was a distinctive mark of their profession to go without stockings, or, at least, with one leg bare. Even the officers and captains adhered to this badge of the infantry. They commonly carried their stockings tied, or hanging at their girdles. As late as the time of Henry the Second, in 1552, when the foot soldiers were dressed and disciplined in a much superior manner, it was customary for the officers and private men to cut their stockings at the knee, when going to the assault of a town. As their dress from the waist to the ankle, consisted only of one piece, it facilitated their scaling a wall, or mounting a breach.’ Vol. ii. p. 237.

Before and during the civil wars, the want of regular pay was supplied by the opportunity of plunder, and the emolument of ransoms, which were so lucrative that the prisoners were frequently taken out of the hands of the common soldiers ; the officers or the general purchasing them for a small sum, and disposing of them for very large ones. Philibert and Emanuel got a great deal by this traffic. To conceal their rank and quality, was frequently attempted by prisoners.

‘ Monsieur de Bauge (says Ambrose Paré) brother to the count de Martigues, had been made prisoner by two Spanish soldiers, at Terouenne, in 1553. Vaudeville, governor of Gravelines, having seen him, conceived an opinion that he was a man of rank. To satisfy himself on a point of such importance, he caused Bauge’s stockings to be taken off ; and remarking that his socks were neat, and his feet extremely clean, he became confirmed in his original apprehension. He, therefore, purchased him of the two soldiers, for fifteen crowns ; who, being unable to maintain their prisoner, and ignorant of his quality, gladly accepted the sum offered. Bauge studiously concealed his name and condition, and patiently endured every hardship ; sleeping on straw, and subsisting on bread and water. Vaudeville soon afterwards transmitted to him a list of the French

French killed at the capture of Hesdin by the Spaniards; and on reading his brother's name among them, his grief surmounted his prudence. He burst into involuntary tears and exclamations, which were heard by his guards; who no sooner discovered the connexion between him and the count de Martigues, than they apprized Vaudeville of the value of his prize. By order of that officer, Baugé was immediately removed to an apartment hung with tapestry; he was served with delicacy, and seven thousand five hundred crowns were demanded for his ransom. On his pleading inability to raise so considerable a sum, Vaudeville observed, that it was possible he might not procure his freedom at a price so reasonable; and the event justified the prediction. Mary, queen of Hungary, governess of the Low Countries, and the duke of Savoy, having been informed that a person of his quality was in Vaudeville's possession, they dispatched a messenger to him, to command that Baugé should be forthwith delivered up to them; adding, that the morsel was too large for him, and that he had captives sufficient besides. Baugé's ransom was immediately raised to twenty thousand crowns.' Vol. ii. p. 254.

The following picture of Paris shows how far the occasional magnificence of that age was from the permanent conveniences and elegant luxuries of succeeding ones—

‘The French metropolis, at the close of Henry the Third's reign, was divided into sixteen wards or quarters, and was principally built on the northern bank of the Seine, and in the island of “Notre Dame.” It had not yet made any considerable progress to the south of the river, where the “Fauxbourg St. Germain” is now situated. Strong walls, flanked with large towers, surrounded the city; and the keys of the gates were deposited in the hands of the municipal magistrates, who took especial care that they should be carefully shut every evening. The citizens were regularly enrolled, disciplined, and accustomed to the use and exercise of arms: they elected their own military officers; had their places of assembling, their banners, and their watch words. If not formidable from their skill, they were still respectable from their numbers. In general, the streets were so narrow, that it was easy to leap from the tops of the houses on one side, to those on the other; and it was a common pastime, during the carnival, for the young nobility to divert themselves by this hazardous amusement. That the principal streets were paved, is undoubted; since we find that, at the preparations made for celebrating the unfortunate tournament in which Henry the Second was killed by Montgomery, in June 1559, the street “Saint Antoine” was unpaved, converted into lists, and adorned with theatres and triumphal arches. Other proofs of this fact might be adduced: but the dirt and filth were notwithstanding such, as to render all passage exceedingly difficult, and to contribute, in an

eminent degree, to the pestilential and malignant distempers, by which the capital was frequently desolated. In 1583, Montjoseu, a man of talents, and peculiarly skilled in mechanics, undertook the execution of a plan which he had formed, for cleansing the streets; but the expence so much exceeded the estimate made by him, that in endeavouring to accomplish it, he considerably impaired his own private fortune. At all the corners, were fixed heavy chains, commonly fastened and sealed; but, which could be, at the shortest warning, stretched across; and by the addition of barrels filled with earth, they formed a barricado insurmountable to infantry or cavalry. Henry the Third experienced the formidable nature of these barriers, at the insurrection of the Parisians, in May, 1588. The private houses were constructed with salley ports, which rendered them more tenable and defensible against an armed force. On the other hand, the Bastille might be regarded at once, as the citadel of Paris, and as a prison of state. It was strong; and the treachery alone of Tetu, who commanded in it, produced its surrender to the duke of Guise, immediately after the king's flight from the metropolis. Ornano had offered to maintain it, against all the forces of the league.' Vol. ii. p. 282.

The Louvre itself was rather a fortress than a palace. It was composed of towers constructed in the Gothic taste, surrounded with a wide and deep ditch, across which the entrance lay through vast gates, constantly guarded by archers. The palace of the Tuilleries was built by Catharine de' Medici, and was the first building beyond the Alps on the models of ancient Greece. The Pont Neuf was built by Charles IX; he wanted to have called it *Pont aux Pleurs*, from his favourite Quelus being killed on that day it was begun. The ferocity of the age, and particularly the cruelties exercised between the Catholics and Protestants, almost exceed belief; and it is a most melancholy proof of the perversion of the human mind, that their zeal for religion, which was carried almost to frenzy, did not seem to have the smallest influence in purifying their morals. Of the state of medicine, the following anecdote is recorded—

'We can scarcely believe, that the preparation and ingredients of gunpowder were considered as poisonous; and that it was universally customary, in order to deterge and cleanse the wounds, caused by fire-arms, to apply to them boiling oil. John de Vigo, a celebrated physician, whose writings and opinions were received as oracular and infallible, had recommended this pernicious application, previous to every other dressing or digestive. Paré ingenuously confesses, that, subdued and awed by so high an authority, he pursued it; and it was only from the failure of a supply of oil in the camp, that he was compelled to substitute a less destructive application. "Yet terrified," says he, "at my own boldness, in thus venturing

venturing to deviate from the received mode of practice; and apprehensive, that I should find the patients, whose wounds I had not cauterized by the use of boiling oil, dead of poison; I was unable to sleep, and I rose from my bed, at an early hour, to visit them. But, beyond my hopes, I found those, to whom, from necessity, I had administered a digestive of a milder nature, composed of the yolk of eggs, oil of roses, and turpentine, free from pain, inflammation, or tumours, having reposed well during the night. On the contrary, the persons, whose wounds had been washed with hot oil, were in a state of fever, with violent symptoms of every kind. From that time, I resolved never more to burn thus cruelly the poor wretches, afflicted with gun-shot wounds." Vol. ii. p. 349.

The history of French literature, under the princes of the house of Valois, deserves notice; they were all encouragers of genius. Marot and Ronfard were the favourites of Francis I. and Henry III. Rabelais and Montaigne are not only still famous, but still read. In the account of the dress of the times, we meet with the following picture of the effeminate Henry III.—

• The hat, decorated with feathers, and precious stones, worn by Francis the First, was converted into a bonnet, or cap, by Henry the Second and his two successors. Henry the Third substituted in its place, the Italian "toque," or turban; not only as a more effeminate ornament, but in the view of more effectually concealing his want of hair. It was composed of velvet, adorned with jewels, and fastened or bound over one ear, leaving the other exposed, in which was hung a pearl or diamond. When Sully was sent by the king of Navarre, in 1587, to treat with that infatuated and dissolute prince, he was presented by Villeroy to him, at St. Maur, near Paris. "I found him," says Sully, "in his closet, a sword by his side, a short cloak on his shoulders, his little turban on his head; and about his neck, in form of a scarf, was hung a basket, such as the venders of cheese use, in which there were two or three little dogs, not larger than my fist." Vol. ii. p. 392.

In another place we are told that—

• He did not blush to appear commonly in the streets of his own capital, playing with a "Bilboquet." The fashion became general: Joyeuse and Epemon imitated their master; and in a short time, all the gentlemen, pages, and even domestics, were seen every where, in public, with the same appendage. It must be owned, that if rebellion was ever venial, it might plead some excuse, when provoked by such profusion, folly, and abuse of power. De Thou himself assures us, that the king expended above twelve thousand pounds annually, in the single article of little dogs; besides the

funs consumed on monkeys, parroquets, and other animals. The ball given by him to the English ambassadors, in 1585, cost him ten thousand crowns. Two years afterwards, at Epernon's nuptials, he danced in public, with every indication of mirth, while, at his waist hung a large chaplet of ivory skulls. Like Heliogabalus, he affected the ornaments and dress of a woman. The accounts given us by Dion and Herodian, of the indecent appearance of the Syrian emperor of Rome, were realized by the French monarch. In 1577, he commonly frequented public entertainments, in a female attire; his doublet open, and his bosom bare; with a necklace of pearls, and three little capes, as they were then worn by the ladies of the court.' Vol. ii. p. 431.

Watches were not common till the latter end of the sixteenth century, and were worn hanging about the neck. The chief articles of furniture were beds, tapestry, and carpets; but while these were of the richest and most sumptuous materials, *chairs* were not known; they sat round the room on coffers or benches. Among the minuter circumstances of manners, it may be amusing to the ladies to know, that the *pad* was used in the time of Henry III. and it was esteemed a cover for licentiousness. The magnificence and variety of the diversions of that age is perhaps nearly equal to any that succeeded it.

' In delicacy of conception, and even in the splendor of their execution, it may be pronounced that they were not greatly inferior to the boasted pageants of Louis the Fourteenth, given near a century afterwards. As early as 1549, at the public entry of Henry the Second into Lyons, games, in imitation of the gladiatorial, and naval spectacles of the Romans, were presented to that monarch. We may see in the Memoirs of Margaret of Valois, how superb, and how varied were the entertainments, imagined by Catherine of Medecis, to divert the leisure, and to enliven the interview of her daughter, Elizabeth, queen of Spain, at Bayonne, in 1565. She chose for the scene of one of her most sumptuous festivals, the little island in the river Bidasoa, which separates the kingdoms of France and Spain; afterwards rendered memorable by the peace of the Pyrenees. in the succeeding century, between Louis the Fourteenth, and Philip the Fourth. Tables were disposed for the courtiers and nobility, male and female; that of the royal family, under a canopy, at one extremity of the apartment, being raised above the others by an ascent of four steps, composed of turf. Companies of shepherdesses, dressed in cloth of gold and satin, and habited according to the dresses of the various French provinces, waited on the guests. They then performed the dances of their respective countries, in an adjoining meadow. On their passage, by water, from Bayonne to the mouth of the Bidasoa, the splendid barges,

barges, in which the king, the queen-mother, and other attendants embarked, were accompanied, or surrounded by marine deities, singing and reciting verses in honour of the occasion. The banquet was terminated by a "ballet" of nymphs and satyrs, executed with equal delicacy and taste.

' The mythology of antiquity was rifled and exhausted, in the masques and entertainments which accompanied the nuptials of the king of Navarre, in 1572. The impending destruction of the Hugonots at the massacre of St. Bartholomew, seemed even to be portrayed in the enigmatical representations performed before the court. It is difficult to suppose, that Catherine of Medecis could intend thus to warn them of their danger: it is equally difficult not to admit, that the application was so clear and obvious, as to strike the least suspicious or discerning. The scenery represented the Elysian Fields, or the Paradise of Moses: for, the fables of Homer and Virgil, were mixed, by a species of profanation, with the relation given in scripture, of the garden of Eden. A river, the Styx, traversed the theatre, on which appeared the boat of Charon. Behind the Elysium, was constructed an "empyrean heaven," containing within a piece of machinery, which had an orbicular motion, the twelve signs of the zodiac, the seven planets, and an infinity of stars. Twelve nymphs, stationed in the elysian fields, were protected by Charles the Ninth and his two brothers, who defended the entrance, armed from head to foot. On the other side of the Styx, appeared Hell, or "Tartarus," with its proper attributes. The king of Navarre, the prince of Condé, and the Hugonot nobility, who assailed the elysian fields, were overcome, and precipitated into the infernal regions. Mercury and Cupid then descended on the stage, and after different dances, the captives were released. The representation terminated by fire-works, which consumed to ashes the whole machinery and decorations. The heaven vainly attacked by the king of Navarre; the precipitation of himself and his followers into hell; and the flames which closed the exhibition; all appeared to have an allegorical allusion. Four days afterwards, the massacre of Paris took place.

' Magnificent as were the entertainments of 1572, they were excelled by those of the following year, at the reception of the Polish ambassadors, who came to offer the crown of their kingdom, to the duke of Anjou. In one of them, the Poles beheld with pleasure and astonishment, a prodigious mass of rock encrusted with silver, which was moved by concealed mechanism. On the summit were placed sixteen of the most beautiful women of quality, emblematical of the sixteen provinces of the kingdom of France. After singing, and repeating some verses composed for the occasion, by Ronfard and Dorat, they descended; presented to the new monarch various offerings or testimonies of homage; and concluded by performing a dance. It is not easy to represent to ourselves,
even

even in the present age, any thing conceived with more elegance of fancy. At the nuptials of the duke of Joyeuse, which were celebrated in 1581, the queen, Louisa, exhibited in the Louvre, a "ballet" of Circé and her nymphs, executed with incomparable grace, by the ladies of the royal household. We can scarcely credit, notwithstanding the well-known prodigality of Henry the Third, and the testimony of contemporary writers, that he expended in various festivities and diversions, on the above-mentioned marriage, a sum of not less than a hundred and fifty thousand pounds. Many of the masques, or dances, given at court, were celebrated by Desportes the poet, who composed stanzas for the principal characters. We find in his works, the names of these diversions, which are taken usually from some mythological, or romantic fable. There is the masquerade of the "Chevaliers Fideles," and of the "Chevaliers Agitez." In another, denominated the "Masquerade of Visions," Night and Morning appear, and repeat verses in honour of the newly-married pair. They are ingenious, melodious, and full of grace. Ronfard introduces the most fantastic and ideal beings, or personages, in his masques. The four elements, personified, come forward in one of them, to defy the four planets, who accept the challenge. Syrens, and mermaids, predict the future destiny of the French monarchs. Charles the Ninth, habited one while as the sun, and at another as Hercules, pronounces a cartel to love, which is sent by a dwarf. Such was the genius and taste of the entertainments of that age.' Vol. ii. p. 428.

Mr. Wraxall concludes this volume by recapitulating the virtues and the vices which discriminated the sixteenth century. It is a display calculated to make us think with complacency of our own times; for few indeed are the virtues which redeem the licentiousness and barbarity every where practised. We were surprised, however, at the following sentence,—*At the head of the vices may be placed the practice of mingling oaths and imprecations in ordinary discourse*. What! are unmeaning words, however unbecoming, to be placed at the head of vices which produced a St. Bartholomew? Our readers must by this time be sufficiently aware, that Mr. Wraxall's work abounds with entertainment; our notice of the third volume we must postpone to another opportunity.

(To be continued.)

Repertory of Arts and Manufactures, (Continued from Vol. XVI. New Arr. p. 138.)

THE remaining contents of the first volume are—

‘Improvement on metallic conductors, or lightning-rods; by
Mr.

Mr. Patterfon.—Method of diffipating the noxious vapour found in wells, &c. by Mr. Robinfon.—Continuation of M. Berthollet's method of bleaching cloths and thread.—Conclusion of Mr. Grofsart's method of making instruments of elastic gum.—Specification of the earl of Dundonald's patent for extracting tar, &c. from pit-coal.—Specification of Mr. Bell's patent for his new-invented buckles.—Specification of Mr. Street's patent for his invention to produce an inflammable vapour force.—Specification of Mr. Campbell's patent for his method of destroying colour in rags, &c.—An idea of a fimple instrument for meafuring diftances; by James Peacock, efq.—On an univerfal ftandard of meafure; by Mr. Robert Leffie.—Account of the method of making Stilton cheefe; by Mr. John Monk.—On preferving fea-water from putrefaction; by Mr. Thomas Henry.—Continuation of M. Berthollet's method of bleaching cloths and thread.—On the manner of rendering leather impermeable to water; by the chevalier de St. Real.—Specification of Mr. Watt's patent for leffening the confumption of ftream and fuel in fire-engines.—Specification of Mr. Gower's patent for depurating and improving animal oil.—Specification of Mr. Bayley's patent for a machine for dying handkerchiefs, &c.—Description of a patent machine for combing wool; by the rev. E. Cartwright.—Observations on making butter, and on keeping milch-cows in the houfe; by Mr. Robertfon.—Description of a proportional fcale; by Mr. Bayley.—Description of a nail and bolt drawer; by Mr. Rich.—A treatife on faltpetre, by James Maffey, efq.—Conclusion of M. Berthollet's method of bleaching cloths and thread.—Continuation of the chevalier de St. Real's memoir on rendering leather impermeable to water.—Specification of Mr. Stratton's patent for his improved kitchen-range, &c.—Specification of Mr. Fullarton's patent for feparating iron from iron-ftones, &c. and reducing it into malleable iron.—Specification of Mr. Hoyle's patent for communicating heat to all kinds of buildings.—Specification of Mr. Meniff's patent for making fal ammoniac and other falts.—Observations on keeping milch-cows in the houfe; by Mefrs. Rennie, Broun, and Shirreff.—Method of preventing ftone retorts from breaking, &c. by Mr. Willis.—Description of three instruments for drawing in perfpective; by James Peacock, efq.—Continuation of Mr. Maffey's treatife on faltpetre.—Continuation of the chevalier de St. Real's memoir on rendering leather impermeable to water.—Observations on oxygenated muriatic acid; by M. Chaptal.—Specification of Mr. Bramah's patent for a water-cock upon a new conftruction.—Specification of Mr. Wilkinfon's patent for his method of making caft iron, &c.—Specification of Mr. Ward's patent for his method of changing fmoke or vapour into ufeul materials.—Letter from William Pitt, efq. on faving part of the water commonly expended in canal lockage.—Description of a telegraph; by T. N. efq.—Description of a tide wheel;

by

by Mr. Robert Leslie.—Account of the method of curing butter at Udney, &c. by Dr. Anderson.—Conclusion of Mr. Maffey's treatise on saltpetre.—Conclusion of the chevalier de St. Real's memoir on rendering leather impermeable to water.—Conclusion of M. Chaptal's observations on oxygenated muriatic acid.' Vol. i. p. iv.

The second volume commences with a patent granted to Mr. John Donaldson, for his new method of preserving animal and vegetable substances.—This operation is not founded on the addition of substances not animal or vegetable; but the farinaceous vegetable principle is merely proportioned to the coagulative or mucilaginous one. Let the substance to be preserved, for example, be a carrot or turnip, which are of a watery or deliquescent nature; in this case the preserving matter may be compounded of wheat or barley meal, with a solution of any gum or vegetable mucilage. The substances may either be preserved in a raw state, or previously boiled, or otherwise dressed, as occasion requires. When the ingredients are properly mixed, they are to be dried like malt, and closely packed.

II. Patent of Mr. Thomas Barclay, for a discovery or invention, communicated to him by Francis Bailey, of Philadelphia, of a method of making punches for marking, which cannot be counterfeited.—As there is an infinite variety in all the works of nature, any brittle substance, broken into two parts, will exhibit certain irregular figures, which, in infinite repetitions of the experiment, will never be exactly imitated. Small bars of steel, drawn to the proper size of the punch required, and then broken off, will, without more preparation, form a punch, to punch or stamp matrices for types for devices, which cannot be exactly imitated so as to deceive on a careful inspection. Art may be combined with nature, so as to render the device more striking or pleasing to the eye.

III. Patent of Mr. Samuel Pugh, for his new-invented method of preparing oils, for the making and manufacturing of hard soap, with or without tallow, or any other grease, or rosin, at much less price than the method now in use.—Powdered lime is to be mixed with any kind of oil, till it is of the consistence of thick cream, when the mixture is to be ground in a mill such as is used for the grinding of white lead. Put some of this mixture into an iron pan, but not more than will fill it one eighth part, then add the same quantity of oil, and stir them well together. Make a tolerably brisk fire, taking particular care to stir the mixture to the bottom, to prevent it from sticking. In the course of the process, more oil must be added. A mixture is at length formed, of the consistence
of

of wax, and which is adapted to make hard soap. It is also *presumed*, that it may be applied for any ornamental figures, instead of wax. In order to form it into soap, it may be mixed with more oil, or with grease, tallow, rosin, &c. and it will combine with an alkaline ley of any degree of strength.

IV. Patent of Mr. George Hodson, of Chester, for his new method of separating the fossil alkali from the muriatic acid, as it exists in common salt; and also of separating the fossil alkali from the common salt, as it exists in kelp. With a plate.—In order to extract the alkali from common salt, he mixes, with a ton of the salt, sixteen bushels of small-coal, or charcoal. The whole mass is exposed to the action of a reverberating furnace, where it must remain one hour, after it has been in a state of fusion. The substance drawn out must be refined, by forming a lixivium, and evaporating to dryness. To extract the alkali from the common salt, as it exists in kelp, a ton of kelp must be broken into small lumps, and mixed with ten bushels of charcoal, or small-coal. The rationale of this process is very simple; the acid of the common salt is separated, and dissipated by means of the coaly matter, while the alkali remains behind, mixed with the residuum of the inflammable matter employed.

V. Description of a spring staple, to prevent horses from being cast in the halter; in a letter to the editors.—This seems to be a very good contrivance, but cannot be explained without the annexed plate.

VI. Description of an improvement in cattle mills, particularly intended for those which move carding machines; in a letter to the editors.—The object of this improvement is to prevent the bad effects which sometimes happen when the cattle happen to go backward. It does not admit of description without the annexed plate.

VII. Method of bringing boats from one canal into another, of different heights, without the assistance of waterlocks. With a plate. From the general view of the agriculture of the county of Aberdeen; drawn up, for the consideration of the Board of Agriculture, by James Anderson, L. L. D. &c.—This machine cannot be described without the assistance of the plate.

VIII. Description of a furnace, or evaporator, for drying various kinds of salts and other substances; by Mr. Henry Browne, of Derby. With a plate.—We are assured by Mr. Browne, that there are several advantages in this furnace; that the quantity of fuel is less; that less attendance is required than for boilers in general; and that neither the operator, nor the neighbourhood, is annoyed. The greatest advantage,

vantage, however, which it possesses, is, that the atmosphere is rendered of an equal heat with the liquor : by which means evaporation is vastly accelerated. The gold medal of the Society for the encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, was voted to Mr. Browne for this invention.

IX. Considerations relative to the nature of wool, silk, and cotton, as objects of the art of dying, &c. &c. By Mr. Thomas Henry, F. R. S. From the Memoirs of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester.—This paper contains many judicious observations on the art of dying.

X. Memoir on the purification of corrupted water. Read at the Economical Society of Peterburgh ; by Mr. Lowitz.

‘ In the last experiments I made on this subject, I found that six drachms of powdered charcoal were sufficient to deprive three pints of water of its bad smell, and to render it perfectly clear, provided, at the same time, twenty-four drops of vitriolic acid were added ; in this way, therefore, one cask of powdered charcoal would be sufficient to purify thirty-four casks of corrupted water. These experiments, however, must be considered as liable to some variation ; for, in order to obtain effects equal to those I have related, the charcoal-powder must be prepared with the greatest care ; it must also be observed, that though the above small quantity was found sufficient to deprive the water entirely of its bad smell, and to render it very clear, a larger quantity will be required to deprive it of its bad taste.’
Vol. ii. p. 70.

XI. Patent granted to Mr. Joseph Bramah, and Mr. Thomas Dickinson, for their new improved engine, or machine, on a rotative principle. With three plates.

XII. Patent of Mr. Francis Frederick Eckhardt, of Sloane-street, Chelsea ; for his method of preparing cotton, and linen cloths, with a paste, so as to form a smooth and regular surface, and yet leave the cloth of a pliable quality, for the purpose of receiving a coat of water size colours ; upon which are afterwards printed, ornaments in fine silver, and gold, or colours, in different patterns, so as to resemble damask lace, and various silk stuffs ; which being afterwards varnished, may be washed with water without injury ; to be used for hangings, and other furniture for rooms.—A paste is to be prepared with flour, starch, or any of the ingredients with which paste is or can be made, with water or milk : when the paste is made, mix with it a sufficient quantity of wax, so as to preserve the linen, cotton, or cloth, intended to be used, of a pliant or flexible quality. Then strain the linen, cotton, or cloth, upon a frame, and fill the pores or interstices with the above paste or composition ; this is to be done so as to render the surface as smooth as possible. When the linen or
7 cloth

cloth is completely dry, lay on a proper coat of water colours, mixed with gum or size, according to the nature of the colour intended to be used; this being dry, must be well sized over; and, when again dry, varnished over with any of the various sorts of varnish which will resist water, as often as it shall be found necessary, according to the nature of the colour used. If it should be wished that ornaments in silver, gold, or colours, to resemble damask lace, or any of the various silk stuffs, should be printed upon the linen or cloth, then, after the coat of water colours has been laid on, and is dry, gold size, or any of the other compositions that will answer the same purpose, must be laid, with a printing block or a brush, on those parts of the linen or cloth upon which the ornaments are intended to be placed. Before the size or composition is completely dry, gild or silver it with gold or silver leaves, so as to describe the ornaments: this being done, size it over once or twice, as occasion may require; and when thoroughly dry, varnish it over with any of the varnishes, in the manner above mentioned.

XIII. Patent of Mr. Eckhardt, for his method of preparing paper in nearly a similar manner.

XIV. Description of a short pendulum to vibrate seconds; and of a nautical watch. Extracted from the specification of a patent granted to Mr. Robert Leslie, for sundry improvements in clocks and watches. With a plate.

XV. Of the gut-tie in oxen and calves, with its cure, and the method of preventing it in the castration of calves. From the general View of the Agriculture of the County of Hereford; drawn up for the consideration of the Board of Agriculture, by Mr. John Clark, of Builth, Breconshire.—The real author of the useful observations contained in this paper, is Mr. Joseph Harris.

‘ The symptoms of the gut-tie are the same as those of an incurable colic, *volvulus*, or mortification of the bowels. The beast affected with this complaint will kick at its belly, lie down, and groan; it has also a total stoppage in its bowels, (except blood and mucus, which it will void in large quantities,) and a violent fever, &c. To distinguish, with certainty, the gut-tie from the colic, &c. the hand and arm of the operator must be oiled, and introduced into the anus, through the rectum, beyond the os pubis, turning the hand down to the transverse and oblique muscles, where the vessels of the testicles enter the abdomen. There the string will be found united to the muscles, and is easily traced to the stricture, by the hand, without pain to the beast.

‘ This stricture, or *go-tie*, as it is called, is occasioned by an erroneous method of castrating the calves, which the breeders prac-
tise

tise throughout Herefordshire, and is as follows: they open the *scrotum*, take hold of the testicles with their teeth, and tear them out with violence; by which means all the vessels thereto belonging are ruptured.' Vol. ii. p. 100.

No humane person can read the above account of the method of performing an operation rendered necessary by the luxury of man, without a degree of horror. Mr. Harris very properly recommends dividing the spermatic vessels, and then tying them with thread or silk, or searing them with a hot iron. From a consideration of the method found to be most successful in the human subject, we would recommend tying the vessels before they are divided, a little above the place of division. There is no occasion to draw the thread with any violence; and care should be taken that it be several times doubled. By attending to these circumstances, the operation may be rendered perfectly safe, and the gut-tie prevented. Mr. Harris describes an operation for relieving the animal, after the symptoms of the gut-tie have come on. With this, we shall not present our readers, from a persuasion that it is not sufficiently full and complete to enable any person to perform the operation in question. The public are certainly indebted to Mr. Harris for what he has already communicated; but before they can have the full benefit from his discovery, which we do not doubt he is desirous that they should receive, the operation must be described more in detail.

XVI. On the conversion of animal muscle into a substance much resembling spermaceti. By George Smith Gibbes, B. A. of Magdalen College, Oxford. From the Transactions of the Royal Society of London.

The observations of Mr. Gibbes are connected with some which were previously made at Paris.

‘If you put flesh under water, and let it stay some time, it will get very offensive, and the putrefactive fermentation will, in some measure, most assuredly take place. This seems to have been the reason why the substance remaining in the water had not been more accurately examined; it being imagined that, as this decomposition had commenced, the whole would be changed in the same manner. It would appear strange if the same substance, exposed to the action of two such different bodies as air and water, should undergo precisely the same change.’ Vol. ii. p. 106.

Mr. Gibbes mentions, that he has obtained a substance, equal in every respect to spermaceti, from flesh which has been exposed to the action of water, particularly of a *stream* of it, by which the change seems to be both sooner, and more effectually

effectually produced. We have seen some of the substance obtained by Mr. Gibbes; and it seemed to possess all the obvious properties of spermaceti. It may be readily supposed, that the substance, when first obtained from the semi-putrid animal matter, is in a very impure state. Mr. Gibbes found great difficulty in purifying it, but at last obtained the desired end, by means of nitrous acid. This article contains a curious circumstance, which, we believe, first fell under the observation of Mr. Gibbes, and which promises to throw light on the nature of this change.

‘I have brought about this change in a much shorter time, in the following manner: I took three lean pieces of mutton, and poured on them the three mineral acids, and I perceived that at the end of three days each was much altered; that in the nitrous acid was much softened, and, on separating the acid from it, I found it to be in exactly the same state with that which I had before got from the water; that in the muriatic acid was not in that time so much altered; the vitriolic acid had turned the other black.’ Vol. ii. P. 110.

XVII. On the dry rot in timber. In a letter from Thomas Batson, esq. of Limehouse, to the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce; from whose Transactions it is extracted.

XVIII. Continuation of Mr. Henry’s considerations relative to the nature of wool, silk, and cotton, as objects of the art of dying, &c. &c.

XIX. On the method of making alum by the direct combination of its constituent principles. By M. Chaptal, of the Royal Society of Montpellier.

M. Chaptal begins by observing, that it cannot answer to make alum by combining the vitriolic acid in its ordinary state with clay. His method is, to expose clay to the vapours produced by burning sulphur and nitre in closed rooms, in the same process as that employed for making vitriolic acid. In speaking of the structure of the room in which this operation may be performed, he observes, that a lining of lead is very proper, as it is very little affected by the vitriolic acid. But lead is heavy and expensive, and for these reasons, not very eligible for large establishments. These considerations prompted him to seek for some kind of cement which should not be sensibly acted on by the acid in a state of vapour; which should not grow soft by a heat from 122 to 144 $\frac{1}{2}$ of Fahrenheit’s thermometer; and which should be so smooth, that no cracks or crevices should appear in it after being laid on. To fulfil all these conditions, was no easy task; but after a num-

ber of trials he found that equal parts of wax, turpentine, and rosin, answered very well. The only fault which he found in it was, that it was rather too easily affected by heat; but this inconvenience may be avoided by burning the composition on the outside of the room, and managing it so that the heat shall never exceed 133 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer. M. Chaptal had a large room built without a single nail; the roof is formed of wood, covered on both sides with his cement, which protects the wood from being affected by the changes of the atmosphere, and prevents it from warping, which would occasion cracks, and defeat the whole design.

XX. Patent granted to Mr. John Daniel Belfour, of Elsinneur, Denmark; for his new invented machine for making and manufacturing ropes and cordage. With three plates.

XXI. Patent granted to Mr. William Jayne, of Sheffield in the county of York, confectioner; for his invention of a composition, or mixture, for keeping and preserving perfectly sound, for the space of two years at the least, the eggs of hens, turkeys, geese, and ducks.—Put into a tub or vessel one bushel, Winchester measure, of quick-lime, thirty-two ounces of salt, eight ounces of cream of tartar; and mix the same together, with as much water as will make them of such a consistence that it will cause an egg, put into the mixture, to swim with its top just above the surface; then put and keep the eggs therein, which will preserve them perfectly sound for the space of two years at least.

XXII. Patent granted to George Glenny, for his method of obtaining from wood ashes, a greater quantity than usual of pot and pearl ashes.—The common ashes produced by burning wood must be completely calcined in a furnace; and, if a small proportion of lime is sifted among the wood ashes, before they are put into the calcining furnace, it will prevent them from vitrifying; but if they are at times stirred with an iron rake, or other proper instrument, during the process of calcination, that will have the same effect as adding the lime. When the ashes are calcined into a fine powder, the usual method may be pursued; but it is better to boil them in large vessels, especially in frosty weather.

XXIII. Description of a sea gage, for the purpose of sounding in currents, and great depths of water. By John Charnock, esq. With a plate.—The invention of this machine evinces ingenuity: but we very much doubt its utility in practice.

(To be continued.)

Twenty Sermons on various Subjects, preached at Albalowes on the Wall. By the Rev. William Draper, Lecturer of the said Church, and late Curate of the new Church, Wolverhampton. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Richardson. 1796.

THE discourses here offered to the perusal of the public, were, we understand, well received when delivered from the pulpit. They are plain and practical, with more neatness of composition than, in general, occurs. As a proof of this assertion, we insert an extract from the 9th sermon. The text is Isaiah xxix. 13.

‘ To enable us to judge whether we possess this real religion of the heart, it will be useful to enquire, with what views we approach the house of God ; how and with what spirit we perform the services which he hath ordained ; and what are their effects upon our life and conduct. Do we come to this sacred place, under a strong sense of our own unworthiness ; with a real intention to confess our sin, and earnestly plead for mercy at the throne of God ? Do we reflect that we have a solemn duty to perform, an important end to obtain ? Are we so fully convinced of our entire dependence on the author of our existence, as to feel the necessity of coming constantly to him, as to the giver of every temporal and spiritual blessing ? Have we such a sense of his unspeakable goodness, such a value for his inestimable gifts, and such animated gratitude to the all-bountiful donor, as to be ardently anxious to pay our public praise, and join in the thanksgivings of his assembled people ? Have we that high and just estimation of divine service, which incites us to prepare with alacrity for its performance, and not suffer any trifling obstacle to deprive us of the happy occasion of paying our vows before him ? And if any unforeseen circumstance unavoidably prevents our attendance on divine worship, do we consider the omission as a sensible loss ? When engaged in the responses, do we adopt as our own the words which we utter with our lips ? Do we endeavour to check our wandering thoughts, and fix them on the sacred exercises in which we are engaged ? Do we return from the church of Christ under a strong sense, that to be his disciples, we must not be conformed to this world, but transformed in the image of our mind ? And do we frequently retire to meditate how we shall reduce to practice the precepts of holy instruction we have imbibed ? Are we inspired with new resolutions of obedience to the divine will ; and determined on earnestly endeavouring to preserve ourselves from sin, and even to avoid temptation ? An honest answer to these enquiries will enable us to judge, whether we have really surrendered the heart to God, and by our religious duties renewed our strength ; or whether we remain in the dreadful situation of mere nominal Christians, calling upon God only with the mouth, and honouring him merely with the lips.’ p. 166.

Observations made in a Journey through the Western Counties of Scotland; in the Autumn of 1792, relating to the Scenery, Antiquities, Customs, Manners, Population, Agriculture, Manufactures, Commerce, Political Condition, and Literature of these Parts. By Robert Heron. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1793.

THESE observations are the fruits of a tour which the author made in the autumn of 1792, through the most cultivated as well as the most picturesque districts of Scotland. His route was from Edinburgh, where he resides, to Perth. For this part of his excursion he took the stage; for, having before travelled that way on horseback, he was curious, he tells us, to observe the singular oddities of character which he expected to meet with in a public vehicle, and seems to have been rather disappointed when, instead of the lofty strangeness and airs of affected superiority which he expected, he found his companions agreeable people, without any airs or singularities whatever. At Perth he stayed till the beginning of October, and proceeded on horseback (certainly late in the season for a tourist,—and a rainy season it proved too) to Dunkeld Blair, and so on through the highland scenery to Inverary, and thence to Dumbarton and Glasgow, making what is called the Little Highland tour. From Glasgow proceeding southward through Lanarkshire and Dumfries, he visited the Galloways, and returned along the western coast by Air and Irvine to Glasgow. From thence he returned to Perth and Edinburgh, crossing the water between Kinghorn and Leith.

Mr. Heron's character, as a tourist, he gives himself with much ingenuoufness in the following words—

‘I was neither a sentimental, an agricultural, a commercial, a virtuoso, nor an antiquarian traveller; but a sort of compound of all these. Every class of objects, and almost every object had more or less of my attention. Only, I believe, it might have been better, if I had been either more a mere matter of fact man, or a more vigorous thinker.’ Vol. i. p. 6.

It is indeed true that this tour is made a vehicle for the sentiments of the author on all kinds of subjects, religious, political, and æconomical; the traveller often stands still, while the speculatist disserts; his observations are in general just, but they are extended into too great minuteness, and give evident signs of a young traveller, for every thing seems new to him. We discern a laudable pleasure and pride, which he takes in the improvements of his country, and every thing appears to him *en beau*. The motto he has chosen,

Sed neque Medorum sylvæ, ditissima terra,
Nec pulcher Ganges, atque auro turbidus Hermus,
Laudibus Italiæ certent.—

O fortunatos nimium, sua si bona norint ! VIRG.

will probably provoke a smile from many an inhabitant of South Britain, as applied to the northern part of it ; yet it must be remembered, an Italian would equally laugh at either of them for such an appropriation. If, however, the author's country may have exposed him to some partialities, the reader will perceive he has in many places the advantage of a more intimate acquaintance with the interior of the country and its inhabitants, than any but a native could easily enjoy.

Perth attracts a large share of the author's attention. The centre of the reformation formerly, it has ever since been distinguished by the zeal and religious strictness of the different sects, and has likewise, of late, partaken largely of the democratic spirit which gave so great an alarm in Scotland not long ago.

The following remarks on itinerant pedlars exhibit them in a light in which they are not usually considered. Many of these came from Perth and its vicinity, and after spending the early part of their life in travelling, settled in the town as shopkeepers, with the capital they had gained.

‘ And here,—if I may be allowed to assume, for a moment, the cloak, or hood at least, of a commercial philosopher,—I am induced to observe, that chapmen or pedlars, are the great civilizers of countries and nations. We learn from Cæsar and other Roman writers, that the travelling merchants who frequented Gaul and other barbarous countries, either newly conquered by the Roman arms, or bordering on the Roman conquests, were ever the first to make the inhabitants of those countries familiarly acquainted with the Roman modes of life, and to inspire them with an inclination to follow Roman fashions, and to enjoy Roman conveniencies. In North America, travelling merchants from the settlements have done and continue to do much more towards civilizing the Indian natives, than all the missionaries, Papist or Protestant, who have ever been sent among them. There is reason to expect, that much may be equally done for the civilization of the natives of New Holland, by chapmen travelling, with suitable wares from our new formed settlements at Botany-Bay.

‘ Nothing can be more natural, than that these things should so happen. A rude people will hardly go in search of commodities of which they know not the names, the nature, or the value, and which they have little, if any money to purchase. Yet, when such commodities are brought among them, exposed to their view, and recommended as fashionable or useful ; they seldom fail to take

a fancy for them, and will often give in exchange any thing of however essential utility, that they already possess. They learn to labour, that they may have means with which to purchase those foreign commodities.—They learn to disdain the use of those coarse clothes, or rude utensils with which they were before content. And with the new conveniencies, they insensibly adopt that improved system of manners to which such conveniencies properly correspond. In the stage of the progress of society in which this change is begun, no such alteration could possibly take place, without the intervention of chapmen or pedlars.

‘It is farther to be observed, for the credit of this most useful class of men, that they commonly contribute, by their personal manners no less than by the sale of their wares, to the refinement of the people among whom they travel. Their dealings form them to great quickness of wit, and acuteness of judgment. Having constant occasion to recommend themselves and their goods, they acquire habits of the most obliging attention, and the most insinuating address. As, in their peregrinations, they have opportunity of contemplating the manners of various men and various cities; they become eminently skilled in the knowledge of the world. As they wander, each alone, through thinly inhabited districts, they form habits of reflexion, and of sublime contemplation. With all these qualifications, no wonder, that they should often be, in remote parts of the country, the best mirrors of fashion, and censors of manners; and should contribute much to polish the roughness, and soften the rusticity of our peasantry. It is not more than twenty or thirty years, since a young man going from any part of Scotland to England, of purpose to carry the pack, was considered, as going to lead the life, and to acquire the fortune of a gentleman. When, after twenty years absence, in that honourable line of employment, he returned, with his acquisitions to his native country, he was regarded as a gentleman to all intents and purposes. When he had purchased a little estate, he commonly made improvements, and set up in a stile of living, by which the taste of the whole country-side was nightly corrected and refined. I believe in my conscience, that at least a fifth part of our second rate gentry, whose gentility is not of ancient, military origin, may trace it to the useful industry of this deserved (*deserving?*) class of citizens.’ Vol. i. p. 89.

The following may possibly be a travelling story; but it is not a bad one—

‘To what was above mentioned concerning the itinerant merchants of Perth, I shall add farther, that they used sometimes to find the Highland lairds more willing to buy than to pay. Of one of these gentlemen it is related, that a chapman who paid him a dunning visit, having been courteously received, and lodged for the night in a comfortable bed-chamber,—was surprised when he arose

in the morning, and was thinking of demanding his money from the laird,—to see opposite to his window the dead body of a man, hanging upon a post or a growing tree. He enquired concerning this appearance from the first servant who entered his chamber. The servant told him, that it was the body of a merchant from the low country who had come to dun the laird for a debt he owed him; and that, the laird had, in a passion at the fellow's insolence, ordered him to be hung up. Upon receiving this information, our chapman resolved to take his leave of his host, without mentioning the subject of his coming. 'The laird was pleased with the success of his trick; for he who hung on the tree was only a man of straw who had been dressed and hung up, of purpose that his fate might terrify the real creditor from making a troublesome demand.' Vol. i. p. 93.

In giving an account of the different churches in Perth which the author attended, we have the following very important and luminous communication—'I went also to hear *the pulpit* eloquence of the burghers, but have actually *forgot-ten* whether I was pleased or not.'—A remark of equal consequence we find upon two large elms at Dunkeld, the girths and age of which he enquired, but *either*, says he, *I met with no distinct information upon this head, or if I did, it has escaped me.*

An author who allows himself in such inanities, must not wonder if the greatest part of his book should *escape* his readers. Not of the same description is the picture of a true Highland cottage on the banks of the Tummel near Logie-rail, which is executed with equal strength and truth of colouring. The following observations, occasioned by the seats the author visited among the Highland scenery, are agreeable to true taste—

'Another observation which naturally occurs to the traveller through the West Highlands, is, that scenes of wild grandeur and natural magnificence are the best situations for the seats of men of great fortune. There is a sort of analogy by which all the different species of greatness are allied to each other. A wide and copious stream produces a better effect, than a scanty rivulet, at the base of a broad and lofty mountain. A palace requires a more extensive domain than an ornamented farm-house. In the same manner, too, a stately palace, and the expence which a vast fortune affords to be laid out in ornamenting the scenes of nature—accord better with places, where nature shews herself in her grander aspects, and where the utmost force of art is requisite, to subdue her obstinacy,—than with those regions where she assumes a milder and more familiar form. Villas, ornamented farms, and gentlemen's houses of no extraordinary magnificence produce the best effect on level downs, in verdant vales, and on the sides of slowly-sloping, green hills.

hills. In such situations as Dunkeld, Blair-Atholl, Taymouth, or Inverary, they would be like the eyes of a pygmy in the sockets of a Colossus.' Vol. i. p. 234.

The progress of improvement, the rise of manufactures' and, in many places, of new towns and villages, is delineated in a lively manner, and along with them the relaxation of manners.

A modern Glasgow Sunday is spent not very differently from a London one.—A worse consequence of manufactures is the certain corruption of the animated engines by which they are carried on : and on this head our author feelingly and sensibly remarks—

' But, manufactures are a fluctuating, uncertain source of opulence. Paisley has experienced many vicissitudes. At times, the demand has ceased for its manufactures : the workmen have been disbanded : all has been want and distress among them : fathers of families have been glad to enlist for soldiers that they might no longer hear their children cry for bread which they had not to give. And the mother with her babes has wandered about, begging an handful of meal or a crust of bread. And should any circumstances arise, as it cannot be hoped that there will not, to occasion a temporary stagnation in the disposal of those goods which they at present manufacture. When this shall again happen, distress similar to what they have on former occasions experienced, must again overtake them.—And I humbly apprehend, that the best precautions which can be used to prevent such distresses in a commercial and manufacturing country, are—To watch over the morals of the labouring part of the community ;—To form them to regular industry, not to that which works by fits and starts ;—To teach them frugality by laying taxes which may amount to a prohibition, on those articles of luxury which they are most liable to abuse ;—To encourage them to form friendly societies, and to prepare in this manner a public fund against the day of want and distress ;—but, above all things, to spread them equally over the country, not heap them together in great towns.—I will even be bold enough to say, without any disposition either to flatter the employers or insult or injure the workmen, that, it is often of disadvantage to the latter, to receive too high wages ; it renders them less regularly industrious, less frugal, less sober-minded.

' But, this is not all. Since in a manufacturing country, the labourers in the manufactures form a very considerable part of the subjects of the state ; their welfare ought to be made a first object in its general policy : and on their account means should be employed to prevent the traders on whom they depend from engaging too deeply in that blind, gambling speculation which in its failure is attended

attended with certain ruin, and in its success is—in my estimation—hardly fair or honourable.

‘ One shocking circumstance which, in spite of every means that can be used to prevent it, results unavoidably from the present management of our manufactures, is, the almost total ruin of the rising generation. Where left unemployed, the children of the labourers in manufactures are,—as I have observed,—very generally left uneducated; such being almost always the state of the children of the poor about great towns. Where they are even in infancy sent to earn their sustenance by their labour, it is hardly better with them: they are cramped in their growth; their health is wasted by confinement; their morals are corrupted, in consequence of their being crowded so much together; they become independent of parents at an age when they are unfit to judge for themselves: if such children live to the age of thirty or forty, they are commonly the most dissipated, idle, unthinking, improvident, helpless creatures in the world.—But, if their labour cannot be wanted,—yet why should their strength and life be prematurely consumed for all the little labour of which they are capable? Alas: we do with them as did the boy with his goose that laid him golden eggs: he was in a haste to receive all that she had to lay: he killed his goose: the eggs were yet in embryo: thus do we, in our haste to render the rising generation useful to the community, anticipate in infancy all the services of youth, of manhood, of age,—nipping in the bud, the flowers of humanity. When obliged to labour, before the age of twelve or fourteen, children should never be confined for more than four, or at most, six hours in the day: this, if at employment within doors for not more than four days in the week: the other two being set apart for their education. The parents are base, who spending in eating, in drinking, in clothing, those earnings, which they might employ to give their children the enjoyment of that sportive freedom in which the innocence of youth delights,—to procure them instruction in religion, and in the other ordinary branches of education—sending the poor creatures prematurely into all the toils and miseries of life.—Yet, I say not, that in great towns, it is better for the children of the poor to be idle than to be employed: if there be a choice between two such evils, I would rather employ them, work them to death, than send them wandering about the streets, as blackguard boys and infant-strumpets.’
Vol. ii. p. 402.

The Galloways attract a considerable share of the author's attention; he seems there to be among his *dii penates*. The *farmer club*, of New Galloway, instituted by Mr. Gordon of Kenmure, and in which he himself presides, is an instance among many, of the attention paid by the Scotch gentry to the agricultural improvement of their country.

It is pleasant to the philanthropist to reflect how much the condition

condition of the poor in Scotland has been benefited by the introduction of that useful root, the potatoe.

The history and description of Edinburgh, the old and new town, with a particular account of the professorships of the university, and handsome but appropriate and deserved compliments to the present professors, conclude these volumes.

The observations relative to the university are very just; and whoever has seen that part of the new university which is finished, cannot but wish, with a fervour equal to Mr. Heron's, that a design so honourable to literature may not fail of being completed for want of money,—though after all it is an odd reflection, how well it will look in a ruin.

If we have now balanced matters properly between Mr. Heron and our readers, the latter will see that in his tour, there is no want of entertainment or variety; and the former will reflect, for the benefit of any future publication, that it is not every opinion which may be formed in his mind, or every object he may cast his eyes upon, which is worthy of being presented to the public, but only what is new, striking, and relevant to his subject. He will likewise take care that his book be more accurately printed, and the style free from Scoticism. For ourselves, we have to apologise for the accidental delay which has made the notice of this publication so much later than it ought to have been.

Discourses on the Nature and Cure of Wounds, &c. By John Bell, Surgeon. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1795.

THE general subjects treated by Mr. Bell are, 1. Of procuring adhesion. 2. Of wounded arteries. 3. Of gunshot wounds. 4. Of the medical treatment of wounds.—Under the head of ‘particulars,’ are the discourses on wounds of the breast; of the belly; of the head; and of the throat. The third part treats of ‘dangerous wounds of the limbs,’ and ‘of the question of amputation.’ Before we proceed to remark on these, we will lay before our readers the author's motives for the publication, as stated in the prefatory address.

‘The author of these discourses,’ says he, ‘will not allow himself the benefit of that apology, to which he is but too well intitled; for the apology of want of time surely is not respectful towards the public: it intimates, that with time the author could have written a more orderly and a better book; an intimation which is always immodest, and often untrue. The author knows but too well how often, in this book, the marks of hurry will strike his reader, not
surely

surely as apologies for the other parts, but as blemishes, which hurt the whole, and which it will not be easy to excuse. He feels the necessity of requesting that indulgence which every author needs and claims.

‘ The very plan and title of this book is new ; and the author has deviated from accustomed forms in this instance, from no other motive than the hope of making these lessons both pleasant and useful. This method of teaching by discourses is as yet untried : it may have its advantages,—it must have its faults ; and this increases that kind of anxiety which is inseparable from the act of appearing before the public, and which even the sense of duty can hardly relieve.

‘ The author has endeavoured to bring into one easy and comprehensive view, those lesser parts and operations of surgery, which are not found under that much abused title of a complete system. He has endeavoured to interest his reader in the manner of managing wounded arteries, and in many of the lesser points of practice. He has attempted to refute some favourite doctrines, not wantonly but boldly ; “ not because they belong to this doctor or that professor,” but because they seemed to him totally inconsistent with true philosophy, and, what is more important, incompatible with sound surgery, in so far as it is as yet founded upon a knowledge of the powers and principles of the human body. He has used all that freedom with great names which the cause of truth and science requires : he has done much in public, which he could not allow himself to have said in private ; for there criticism is no longer criticism, but the foul report and private malice of it works like a secret poison, against which there is no cure : he has criticised the opinions of those chiefly, who, being at the head of the profession, are of course the best able, and, by all appearance also, the most willing to defend themselves.

‘ But the author has never allowed any pursuit of this kind to break in upon the order or purpose of his discourse, which he has endeavoured always to keep clear of all incumbrances, and in a plain and easy form : he has endeavoured to order it so, that his reader may have first a free and general notion of each subject in the body of the discourse, and he has put down more accurate rules at the conclusion of each case : he has introduced the lighter pieces of history, to give ease and life to the subject ; and to give it weight and firmness, he has added rules of practice. He has endeavoured to give comprehensive and general notions, of wounds in general—of wounded arteries—of bruised or gunshot wounds—and of wounds of the breast, belly, head, throat, and limbs, and especially of the condition of limbs wounded with dangerous complications, as of lacerated arteries and bruised bones.

‘ He trusts, that his manner of explaining these subjects will be plain and easy to the young surgeon, to whom alone he presumes to address

addresses himself; and having thus honestly told his motives and his highest expectations, he hopes he may be permitted to say, with lord Halifax, that he who is resolved to play the critic with this book on stricter terms, "must have a degree of generous irregularity in his reasoning, else he will not be a good thing of his kind." P. iii.

Of the manner in which Mr. Bell has acquitted himself in this undertaking, we cannot give our readers a fairer specimen than by laying before them some extracts from his discourse 'on wounds of the throat,' to which we shall principally confine our remarks. He commences this discourse with some very suitable remarks on the necessity there is for the surgeon's being perfectly acquainted with the anatomy of the parts, of which he proceeds to give the following neat and masterly account—

* The larynx is the cartilaginous part of that tube which conveys the air;—and the connections of the larynx with the surrounding parts are these: the os hyoides lies under the chin, in that great fold which we call, in fat people, the double chin. It lies, properly, in the root of the tongue, whence it is sometimes called the bone of the tongue; it cannot easily be felt from without; but, when we thrust the finger down into the throat, in the accident of a fish-bone, or any foreign body sticking there, we feel the two slender horns of the os hyoides extending and holding open the pharynx or bag, by which we swallow;—so that the os hyoides, which resembles the thought-bone of a fowl, has its base or angle lodged in the root of the tongue, and its two long horns extending along the sides of the pharynx.

* The first piece of the larynx is the thyroid cartilage, the great shield-like cartilage which protects all the others, which is easily felt, being the most prominent point of the throat. The outward projection of it, where it makes its angle in the fore part of the throat, is called the pomum adami; and within this cartilage, if under the protection of its broad wings, lies the rima glottidis, or that delicate opening or chink, which forms the voice.

* The epiglottis, or valve, which lies over the glottis or chink, to defend it, is connected rather with the os hyoides, and root of the tongue, than with the larynx or cartilaginous part of the trachea.

* Below this great thyroid cartilage, there is a circular or ring-like cartilage, joining the trachea or membranous part of the tube to the larynx or cartilaginous part; and then the rings of the trachea, five or six in number, complete the tube, to the place at which the trachea goes down into the chest. It is upon the very point where the trachea is joined to the larynx that the thyroid gland lies.

* Behind

‘ Behind the trachea, which is rigid, lies the œsophagus, which is quite a flexible tube; so that the larynx is the rigid part of that tube which is for receiving air, and the trachea is the continuation of the same tube; while the pharynx is the large bag, being the beginning of that tube which is for receiving food, and the œsophagus is the continuation of the same tube. The larynx, then, is so formed as to modulate the voice; the pharynx is so large a bag, as to be capable of receiving the largest morsel. The larynx can shut itself so accurately, as to prevent the smallest drop of fluid from entering into the trachea. The pharynx can dilate so freely, and can grasp so closely, as to receive the largest morsel easily, or swallow the smallest pill, or a drop of water.

‘ Now, the chief point to be remembered, in regard to wounds of the throat, is the relation of the carotid arteries to the trachea and larynx; the connection of the great veins and nerves, again, with the carotid artery, and the manner in which the first branch of the carotid artery goes off.—First, it is to be remembered, that the arch of the aorta lies in the upper part of the chest before the trachea; and that, when the carotid arteries come out from the chest, to go up along the neck, they are scarcely at the sides of the trachea, they rather run before it: but that, as the arteries mount up the neck, they incline more to the side of the trachea; and that, at the upper end of the neck, the carotids are entirely behind the trachea; for they incline towards the angle of the lower jaw, and, having reached it, they begin there to give off their branches, both those for the head and those for the neck. From this observation one thing very particular is explained,—how a wound at the lower part of the neck will very often be fatal, while a wound in the upper part of it is less dangerous. The suicide seldom strikes at the lower part of the neck; and it is by this accident of striking very high and near to the chin that the carotids escape.

‘ Next it is to be remembered, that the carotid artery, the great jugular vein, and the par vagum, or eighth pair of nerves, lie all connected with each other, very closely, being all enclosed in one mass of cellular substance, forming something like a sheath. Now, since this eighth pair is one of the greatest nerves of the viscera; and since, by experiments upon animals, we know well, that a wound of it is more fatal than a wound of the brain itself, this puts an end, at once, to all questions about the way of managing wounds of the carotid artery, or of the great vein. No doubt, these may, sometimes, be partially wounded, and the nerve escape; but, in general, the nerve will be cut along with them, and, at all events, the fear of including it will prevent our striking with a needle in the neck;—we can only take up the carotid artery, when we see it bleeding with open mouth, and can pull it out with our finger and thumb; and how near it is to an impossibility, that this should hap-
pen,

pen, and the patient live till the surgeon arrive, you may easily conceive.' p. 159.

Our author pursues the subject in the following way—

' This plain description of the connections of the trachea, œsophagus, carotid artery, vein, and nerves, explains to you how ignorantly those authors have written about wounds of the throat, who tell us, first, a formal story about the wound having passed through both the trachea and œsophagus, and then, how the patient was cured;—for it is impossible to cut across both trachea and œsophagus, without wounding the carotid artery, the jugular vein, and the eighth pair of nerves; you may guess, then, whether the wounds they described were exactly what they believed them to be.

' Next, their reason for saying, in such cases (so easily cured), that the wound had passed through both the trachea and the œsophagus, is mighty childish; it is merely this,—that they saw both air and food come out by the wound; and no one scruples to say, when he sees both air and food come out by the wound, that the trachea and œsophagus are both cut, while the fact is, that neither the œsophagus nor trachea are touched in the least degree,—that the wound is much above them; for a suicide always strikes immediately under the chin;—his wound, as far as I have observed, commonly falls in the line or lurk of the skin, which divides the neck from the chin:—That is the place where the os hyoides lies, and he commonly cuts the os hyoides away from its connection with the thyroid cartilage or pomum adami. Now, in that case, the thyroid cartilage, forming the uppermost part of the larynx, is not touched; the rima glottidis lies below the wound, quite safe; the wound, indeed, separates the epiglottis from the glottis, but it leaves the glottis and the larynx quite safe; it only separates the larynx from the root of the tongue; it is properly a wound in the root of the tongue; it is rather a wound of the mouth than of the throat; and when the food comes out, along with spittle and froth, it is by rolling over the root of the tongue.' p. 162.

We stop here to express our doubts, whether Mr. Bell is accurate in concluding that the wounds which suicides usually inflict on the throat are, 'commonly,' thus situated. On the contrary, our own experience warrants a suspicion that, even in the majority of these accidents, the wound takes place *below* and not *above* the thyroid cartilage. Neither can we admit, without some qualification, that 'it is impossible to cut across both trachea and œsophagus, without wounding the carotid artery.' If the instrument employed were always one whose edge was rectilinear, and the hand which applied it took a corresponding direction, we should readily concede the argument. But the fact being usually otherwise, the weapon being commonly a razor, penknife, or case knife, whose edge

is incurvated outwards, or whose point is calculated to sink deepest between the *two extremities* of the incision, we are by no means satisfied of the *impossibility* on which he insists, though the improbability may readily be allowed.

‘One thing more,’ continues our author, ‘is to be remembered, that the first branch going off from the carotid artery; is the artery of the thyroid gland; that it comes off from the main artery at the angle of the jaw, and turns downwards along the side of the throat, to plunge into its gland. Now, as this artery lies along the side of the trachea on its upper part,—and as its tendency is forwards, towards the fore-part of the trachea, where the gland lies, it is much exposed, and is almost always cut;—the bleeding from it is terribly profuse; the patient faints; and the surgeon naturally believes it to be the carotid artery; if the surgeon does not come early, its bleeding is as fatal as that of the carotid artery itself.’ p. 163.

Mr. Bell next exposes, very successfully, the mistakes of those who attempt to relate cases of this kind, without having a knowledge of the true nature of the accident, or an adequate idea of the anatomy of the parts.

‘When a surgeon continues,’ says he, ‘during all the cure, to dress his patient daily, without knowing what parts are cut, or, in delivering the notes of such a case, misnames the parts,—he is guilty of such gross ignorance, that his name should hardly be concealed. The following description I introduce, chiefly for the purpose of illustrating what I have just told you;—it is extracted from a medical collection, and is entitled “The history of a remarkable wound of the trachea and neighbouring parts.”—“I found this man,” says the author, “lying upon the ground, with his throat cut from ear to ear,—and an immense effusion of blood.”

“The external jugular veins, on both sides, were perfectly divided,—the carotid artery laid bare,—the trachea arteria divided from the larynx, above the *pomum adami*. The epiglottis and glottis entirely detached from the *rima glottidis*;—the trachea cut through, except about a finger-breadth of the back part, which was very much stretched; for the trachea, which was thus divided, had retracted equal with the clavicles.”

‘This is a very singular instance of ignorance and confusion: the plain story is this, that the man, having cut his throat from ear to ear, had separated the *os hyoides*, which lies in the root of the tongue, from the thyroid cartilage, which forms the upper part of the larynx, and consequently the damage was plainly this; the mouth was cut open rather than the throat, the tongue was cut away from the larynx, and the epiglottis was separated from the glottis, or *rima*, or chink, for this little opening has all these names.

‘To

‘ To divide the trachea from the larynx, the cut must be under the thyroid cartilage, or pomum adami; but the author tells us, that “ the trachea arteria was divided from the larynx, above the pomum adami,” though the pomum adami is itself the bulging of the larynx, and nothing is above it but the os hyoides and tongue; and he tells us next, that “ the glottis and epiglottis were detached from the rima glottidis,” as if the rima glottidis and the glottis were not actually the same. In short, the mistakes and absurdities of this kind which are to be found in books, are endless, and there could neither be pleasure nor instruction in pursuing this subject any farther *.

‘ The chief difficulty lies in understanding the anatomy of the parts; for, as a simple wound, you know that in this, as in any other, you have but two points to attend to, to suppress the bleeding and to procure adhesion. And both these points you will understand much better, by remembering what I have just proved to you, that very commonly the wound is high, viz. betwixt the throat and the tongue; for this particular place of the wound makes it easy to prevent bleeding, but difficult to procure adhesion.’ P. 163.

The following account of the necessary treatment closes Mr. Bell’s remarks on this subject—

‘ Our chief object,’ says he, ‘ should be, first to get the parts into fair and neat contact, so that not a particle of food nor of foam should escape; and next, to prevent, by all contrivances and every kind of care, the least degree of motion of the tongue, or parts about the throat. It is well known, that if parts do not unite early, it is not easy to make them unite at any after period; and yet I cannot tell how often I have seen the throat left gaping to a most enormous extent, the saliva continually besmearing the neck and breast, and the edges of the mouth-like wound as callous as the palm of the hand.

‘ The effort to swallow cannot be entirely prevented, for the patient will, notwithstanding your remonstrances, continue to swallow the spittle, working continually with the throat; but his swal-

* Mr. Benjamin Bell has made a curious conjecture concerning wounds of the œsophagus: he says, “ Wounds of the œsophagus are chiefly dangerous, on account of the difficulty of reaching it from its deep situation; and from the under part of the œsophagus, when entirely separated from the rest, being apt to fall altogether within the sternum; and from the difficulty of supporting the patient with proper nourishment,” p. 167. Now, Mr. Bell, when he was guessing about this, might as easily have guessed, (since the back part of the œsophagus lies smooth against the fore part of the vertebræ), that whenever the œsophagus was so fairly cut across, as to sink under the sternum, all the parts of the neck must be cut, and nothing in fact left, but the vertebræ for the head to nod upon; in such a wound, viz. where the carotid arteries, jugular vein, and great nerve were all cut, I should conjecture, that the surgeon would not be long troubled about ways and means of supporting the patient with proper nourishment.’

lowing of food should not be allowed. To nourish a man by glysters, during this tedious cure, is impossible; you must, therefore, find some way of conveying food to the stomach, without any effort on his part, by an eels skin, or by a flexible leather tube, such as we use for injecting tobacco smoke.

‘ The continual draining of the saliva cannot be prevented otherwise, than by closing the wound neatly and effectually; it should be closed with a number of separate stitches proportioned to the extent of the wound. The stitches should be neat and firm, through the skin and muscles,—through all the flesh that you can get fairly, but not through the cartilages. In the interstices of the stitches, you should lay neat slips of black court plaster across the lips of the wound,—you should lay a large flat adhesive plaster over all, to make it firm,—you should bring the head forwards, and bridle down the chin to the waistcoat,—your patient should be ordered neither to speak nor to swallow; and he should be enjoined rather to let the saliva trickle down the corners of his mouth, than to swallow it.

‘ In the disordered condition of his mind, large opiates will help to compose him to rest, and may be useful in appeasing the irritation and cough; and you must especially remember, that the presence of some friend is necessary both to sooth him, and to watch over him. Often, indeed, he falls into a humble and penitent state of mind, and bears every thing quietly; but sometimes the shame of what he has attempted, and the apprehension of appearing again in the world, makes him weary of life, wishing that what is begun were completed; so that sometimes I have been obliged to bind such unhappy people before they could be dressed, and never could think of leaving even the most composed of them without precautions.’ P. 167.

In the propriety of the treatment here recommended, we are perfectly inclined to acquiesce, with one exception only. Mr. Bell, in following what we think too much the routine of practice in these cases, has not bestowed a due share of consideration on the propriety of attempting, by the help of *ligatures*, a union of those parts, which, from their natural disposition to retract, as well as from their gravitation in every position of the body where the head is at all raised, must have a constant tendency to separate, and consequently to drag out the stitches. Although by such means the skin may be drawn fairly together, and even retained long enough to obtain some degree of union by the first intention, the wounded surfaces of the muscles themselves cannot be kept so completely *in contact*, but that some cavities will exist, and afford a lodgment for matter, which, forcing its way in various directions, will utterly defeat the end proposed by the ligatures. These

consequences, at least, we have frequently witnessed from the use of ligatures; though it is possible they may not happen in every instance; whilst, on the other hand, every good purpose has been answered by keeping the chin closely and steadily down between the clavicles, by means of a bandage passed over the head and under the arm-pits.

We shall conclude our remarks by observing, that the publication before us abounds with useful matter, and exhibits such traits of a well-informed mind, as cannot fail to impress Mr. Bell's readers with considerable respect for his professional talents.

Jurisdiction and Practice of the Court of Great Sessions of Wales, upon the Chester Circuit. With Preface and Index.
8vo. 6s. Boards. Butterworth. 1795.

CORRECT and well arranged accounts of the powers and rules of practice that appertain to respective courts of justice, deserve the praise of conveying to the public a very useful species of information. The present work contains a faithful delineation of a branch of jurisdiction, to be traced to remote historical causes, differing from that of the courts of England, and with the forms of which, a considerable part of the legal profession are, perhaps, but very slightly acquainted.

The author thus intelligently describes the motives and the plan of his compilation.

‘ For the Chester circuit, no work has ever been published; except so much of the *Practica Walliæ* as applies to the counties of Montgomery Denbigh and Flint; and except also a collection of “ Rules of the Court of Sessions of the County Palatine of Chester, 8vo, Chester, 1783:” and neither of these contains a regular or entire collection even of the general rules and orders for the jurisdiction to which they belong:

‘ In explaining what is here proposed to be done towards supplying this deficiency, it should be stated; that upon this circuit, the judges of great sessions hold their office by virtue of two distinct patents, one for Denbighshire and Montgomeryshire, and another for Flintshire and Cheshire; but that their chancery jurisdiction runs through all the three former counties; and the equitable jurisdiction for the county of Chester is vested in the chamberlain of Chester, who exercises it by his vice-chamberlain. It should be stated also, that the course of proceeding upon this circuit has been gradually framed and settled, in some degree, by certain general rules and orders which the judges have pronounced from time to time; and in other respects, according to the particular rules made in particular cases, which have been afterwards recurred to as precedents.

dents. These several rules and orders have been casually noted as they arose by each prothonotary in his time, and entered into some book for his own private and personal instruction; and it is, by comparing these several manuscript collections, no one of which is complete, and most of which differ from each other in the variety of their contents; and by arranging their materials according to the regular course of procedure; and by incorporating with them, under their proper heads, every article of the printed Chester rules; that the present compilation has been formed. The distribution of the whole is into four parts. I. The style and forms of the court. II. Pleas of the crown. III. Proceedings in civil actions; containing the rule on each point, whether general or special; with its date when, and the place where, it was made. IV. Proceedings in equity; which part appears to have been originally a sort of reading or private commentary upon the subject; but it now contains also several rules made in particular cases, and is referred to as conclusive authority upon this branch of business. A general index follows, comprizing all the contents of the text.' p. xix.

The remainder of the author's preface is occupied with the description of a topic that has been frequently agitated, — namely, whether the abolition of the court of great sessions in Wales would not be productive of advantage to that country, and also facilitate the general administration of justice in the kingdom. The arguments, *pro* and *con*, are stated with perspicuity and candour; those in the affirmative preponderate in our author's opinion; and we should entirely agree with him, if the expense of process, at present attending the jurisdiction of the British courts, did not supply a strong reason for the existence of inferior tribunals, where justice is locally and cheaply administered.

Sketches in Verse, with Prose Illustrations. 8vo. 4s. Boards.
Cadell and Davies. 1796.

OF the greater part of these poems, the best commendation that we can fairly give them, is that they are elegantly printed on fine wove paper. There is a pretension to novelty announced by the titles of some of them, as *the Highland Ode, the Egyptian Ode, the Arabian Ode*; but even these, though they present an assemblage of pleasing and tolerably appropriate images, have little claim to the merit of a finished ode. The following lines from the *Egyptian Ode* may serve by way of specimen—

‘ See tufted Faioum breathe delight
From rose-trees kindling on the light,

E e 2

From

From orange-blooms, or tamarind-bowers,
 Or the pomegranate's scarlet flowers,
 And loftier palms, that wave between
 Their foliage of a deeper green,
 Relieving the bright azure skies
 Where scarce a rainy vapour flies;
 While thro' the fragrance as it blows
 A stream of limpid amber flows,
 While nestles many a gurgling dove
 Within the bosom of the grove,
 And from the shade on sable wings
 With crimson strip'd—the flamen springs,
 And the plum'd ostrich on the sands,
 Or pelican majestic stands.

‘ To cool the sun's meridian beams,
 There fruits refreshing kiss the streams,
 Or blushing to eve's purple ray
 Amid the breezy verdure play—
 As its leaves shade each silver sluice
 The pulpy water-melon's juice,
 To eager thirst delicious balm;
 And sugary dates that crown the palm.’ P. 18.

The prose essays, improperly called *illustrations*, we cannot pass without remark, as we do not remember to have seen sentiments so diametrically opposite to the spirit of philosophy, or even good common sense. Every low-minded prejudice and exploded superstition, which had been discarded by the liberal and enlightened investigations of modern times, this author endeavours to revive and defend. In one he inculcates the doctrine—the scripture doctrine as he pretends—of apparitions; in another, the ‘homage and veneration’ due to birth. A few sentences may suffice to show how far he carries his ideas—

‘ He, who is descended from people of education, inherits, in general, a different turn of understanding and disposition from the man who is born of mean or vulgar parents. And it is natural to suppose, that that peculiar turn inherent in the man of family, is by far the most respectable. The offspring of gentlemen are born with a delicate bodily texture, very easily distinguishable from that of vulgar children. Why, then, may not the mental constitution be equally different?’ P. 111.

When ‘the patrician race intermix with the plebeian,’ these wonderful advantages, we are told, are lost. The author has even presumed to fix (which is rather a delicate speculation) the point of time at which these advantages of mind and
 body

body become inherent in the race : for he asserts that ‘ the continuance of the same opportunities, &c. may probably fix, after a generation or two, the peculiar qualities of a family, so as to make them hereditary, provided the family descend not to degrading connections.’

There is one difficulty, however, in this business, which we have always felt to be a very puzzling one : as the great founder of the race enjoys none of these sublime advantages, we do not see how a man can transmit what he never had. Of the *novi homines*, our author speaks with great contempt—

‘ In the mean time, the new-created gentleman, endeavouring to bring his crude unripened virtues, his equivocal qualities into light, is checked, at every effort, exposed as he is to the censure of affectation, of haughtiness, and of pertinacity. The man, through whose veins is flowing a rich tide of uncontaminated blood, is often remarked for the pristine ‘sincerity, the old hospitality, the honest ingenuousness of family.’ P. 116.

Is it possible to carry further Mr. Burke’s idea of *cherishing prejudices* ?

Essays by a Society of Gentlemen, at Exeter. (Concluded from p. 279.)

WE left this very respectable collection at the end of the tenth essay, as the remarks on Shakspeare were extended through three articles, which, if not connected, yet seemed at least written in the same style, probably by the same author. The 11th, ‘ On Literary Fame and the Historical Characters’ of our great dramatist, is an ingenious essay, which will probably be generally read. The author traces to its source the foundations of literary fame, and describes the current, which astonishes, from its magnitude and splendour, as obscurely gliding, or contemptuously overlooked, at its origin. Such were the streams of Shakspeare and Milton, while their contemporaries, though warmly praised, or rapturously admired for a time, were soon forgotten. The impression which the historical characters of Shakspeare make on our minds, is derived from the minute traits or anecdotes which the poet preserves, and which, instead of representing a general, fixes the idea of an individual personage. This is exemplified in various instances : we shall select one or two—

‘ When Falstaff ridicules the slender form of prince Henry, and says that he would give a thousand pounds if he was able to run as fast as he could, &c. we must not suppose that those words are thrown out accidentally. Historians agree in describing him as

tall, thin, and active. Like Achilles he was no less conspicuous for swiftness than for personal courage. The former is represented by Pindar as

ΚΤΕΙΝΟΝΤ' ΕΛΑΦΟΥΣ ΑΝΕΥ ΜΥ-

-ΩΝ, ΔΟΛΙΩΝ Θ' ΕΡΚΕΩΝ.

ΠΟΤΣΙ ΓΑΡ ΚΡΑΤΕΣΚΕΝ.

Nem. Od. 3.

And we might be almost tempted to suppose that our old annalist copied from the Grecian bard, but for the words inclosed in a parenthesis. "He was passing swift in running, inasmuch that he (with two other of his lords) without bounds, bow, or other engine, would take a wild buck or doe, in a large park." (Stowe.) "Omnes Coætancos, says Thomas de Elmham, saliendo præcessit, cursu veloci simul currentes prævenit." We see from these quotations, the propriety of Hotspur's styling him "the nimble mad-cap prince of Wales;" and the peculiar justice of the following comparison, drawn by Vernon, a friend of Hotspur's.

"I saw young Harry with his beaver on,
His cuisses on his thighs, gallantly armed,
Rise from the ground like feathered Mercury;
And vaulted with such ease into his seat,
As if an angel dropt down from the clouds
To turn and wind a fiery Pegasus,
And, witch the world with noble horsemanship."

Hen. 4th, 1st part. A. 4. S. 1.

A variety of beautiful and happy allusions occur likewise in the former part of the same speech. An attention to such minutiae, though not historically true, must have a wonderful effect in realizing the dramatis personæ.—Even in respect to animals, as well as men, Shakspeare will not deal in generals. The tragedy hero of a modern dramatist would call for "his barbed steed" or his "fiery courser:" but a Richard orders his groom to

"Saddle white Surrey for the field to-morrow."—

And historians say, that when he entered the town of Leicester, "he was mounted on a great white courser." May we not reasonably suppose, that this was the identical Surrey? The gallant earl, whose name he bore, was warmly attached to Richard, and had probably, as a proof of his regard, bestowed on him this acceptable present.

"The impetuous Hotspur impatiently enquires after his "crop-eared Roan," and exclaims, in equestrian transport, "that roan shall be my throne." His fondness for his horse (of which he appears to be no less proud than Diomedes, a congenial character, was of the steeds of Troy) is one of his marking features, and humourously ridiculed by his rival in fame, prince Henry. (Henry 4th,

zit part A. 2, S. 8.) When Vernon, therefore, expatiates with more candour than discretion, in praise of his "noble horsemanship," it peculiarly irritates the mind of Hotspur. His reply, particularly the conclusion, is truly characteristic.

— "Come, let me take my horse,
Who is to bear me, like a thunderbolt,
Against the bosom of the prince of Wales.
Harry to Harry shall, and horse to horse,
Meet, and ne'er part till one drop down a corse!"

Hen. 4th, 1st part, A. 4. S. 2.

Hotspur feels himself touched in a tender point. His rival is celebrated for a qualification in which he thought himself pre-eminent; and his mind reverts with vexation to the unpleasing idea. The beauty of this natural fallacy of passion escaped the earlier editors of Shakspeare; and it has been printed "not horse to horse," in every edition but the first, till sir Thomas Hanmer restored the original reading. Such a little trait distinguishes a master's hand more than pages of laboured declamation. P. 266.

The other essays, seemingly from the same pen,—for we prefer internal evidence to the delusive light which the signatures hold out,—are apologies for the characters of Jago and Shylock. These are ingenious jeux d'esprit—the causes are desperate; and if the author does not succeed, the failure cannot injure 'his fair fame.' He has said much more in favour of Jago than of Shylock, and has almost led us to think that Jago's wrongs would have, in some measure, justified his revenge, if revenge were ever justifiable.

In returning to the order of the essays, we next proceed to the 'Curfory Remarks on the present State of Philosophy and Science,' with which we shall unite the philosophical papers, though pretty certainly not written by the same author. The curfory remarks contain a light but pleasing and correct view of the present state of science. We wish often for some retrospect of this kind; some æra from which we may mark our progressive steps, and calculate our improvements. We differ from this author in two or three circumstances of no great importance; but we perceive some novelties scattered through his pages, which, if extended at more length, would claim our attention; and an accuracy of comprehension which deserves our regard. This essay, though light, is by no means superficial.

One passage in these remarks seems to point them out as having been written by the author of the next philosophical essay we shall notice—'Reflections on the Composition and Decomposition of the Atmosphere, as influencing Meteorological

gical Phænomena.' The object of this essay is to show that rain is not a deposition of water dissolved in air: for though the author admits of the solution of water, he considers it as not so extensive in its operation as to produce rain. This he supposes to arise from a change of air into water, and, on the contrary, water, in evaporation, becomes air. The means by which these changes are effected, he seems not clearly to have explained. The change from water into air is accompanied with the evolution and appearance of the electrical fluid; and this he has traced in so many instances, and shown the connection of these phænomena so strikingly, that if the union of the electrical fluid with air is not alone the cause of its conversion into water, it has at least a considerable share in the change. This essay we consider as singularly ingenious and philosophical: we cannot add that we are completely convinced; yet, having followed the chain of reasoning closely, we know not where to fix the standard of opposition. The facts (for the author rests neither on declamation nor hypothesis) are well chosen, and the deductions seemingly accurate. We cannot separate the arguments, but shall select what we consider as a satisfactory explanation of some seemingly unaccountable facts.

‘ It appears to me highly probable, that the positive electricity of the air, which is its most constant and apparently its natural state, is owing to the decomposition of water, which in its change into air, suffers the electrical fluid, seemingly one of its component parts, to escape. But this opinion must not rest on suspicion only.

‘ It has been long since observed, that the steam of boiling water is electrified negatively, while the vapour of water, poured on a hot iron, possesses an electricity of the opposite kind. These facts still appear unaccountable, and have not hitherto I believe been connected with two others, that inflammable air is constantly produced by water passing through an intensely heated gun barrel, filled with iron filings, and that the air proceeds from the decomposition of the water. If then the electricity must proceed from a conductor or an electric per se, there can be little doubt of its source. The inflammable air may be procured also, if copper be employed, but in less quantity; and sometimes even through porcelain though imperfectly, and apparently, in consequence of the biscuit containing some iron. With this clue let us examine M. Sauffure’s experiments particularly.

‘ When a little water falls on iron intensely heated, it does not immediately evaporate: like the drop of water on the cabbage leaf, the reflection shows, that it is not in contact with the iron, but kept by a repulsive power, at some distance. When the water is dropped into a crucible, it remains a little longer, and disappears
only

only after several seconds. The electricity is then positive. When the heat is less, the evaporation is quicker, and the electricity less powerful: when still less, so as to occasion a hissing noise, the electricity is negative. In porcelain vessels, it is generally negative, and in vessels of pure silver always so.

‘ M. Saussure, who relates these experiments, has involved the subject by considering the disappearance of the water as, in every instance, owing to its evaporation. If, as we now know, water be decomposed, while in contact with hot iron, all the intricacy will be removed; nor can we speak, with our author, of ‘ these unconnected facts, as with difficulty reconciled to the common systems, and as seeming to shrink from principles hitherto known.’ The time he observes, when water disappears most slowly, is that when the crucible ceases to shine. This circumstance would be a priori probable, if the disappearance of the water proceeded from its decomposition, for it is the lowest degree of heat in which the separation of the ingredients takes place, a process always connected with light. At a lower degree, the water forms only vesicular vapour, and, as it is still a watery fluid, no change of electricity is observed, or from causes, which it is unnecessary to explain, the electricity becomes negative. Silver does not, in any respect, contribute to the decomposition of water, and conducts more readily, when warmed, the electricity, which the water might have possessed. In an iron or copper vessel, with a narrow orifice, the water disappears more quickly and the electricity is positive, as might have been expected from the additional heat, which the water was subjected to. In the æolopile, water seems to be constantly decomposed, for it makes fire burn, with an enlarged and more brilliant flame, a proof of the presence of a pure elastic fluid, whose existence and whose source has not hitherto been suspected.

‘ M. Saussure is equally perplexed by the result of other experiments, which the same explanation will reconcile. He was greatly surprized to find electricity only in boiling liquors, not in burning bodies. It is well known, that after the most careful distillation, the whole of the water cannot be recovered, and it is equally certain, that some water is formed during the burning of every vegetable substance. The electricity therefore escapes, in the first instance, on the decomposition of the water, and is combined with the water in the second.’ P. 373.

The only other essay of this class is on ‘ Light, particularly on its Combination and Separation as a Chemical Principle.’—On this we can scarcely hazard any opinion. A studied conciseness, and a compacted mass of facts and authorities, render it at first with difficulty intelligible. When we had attained this end, the numerous novelties startled us; and we were again obliged to go over the whole, with as many of the
authors

authors as we could procure, in our hands. After this labour, we can venture at least to praise the author for industry, accuracy, and (if farther inquiry should confirm his opinion) for extensive views and ingenious research. At present we shall confine ourselves to the outline. Light he considers as a body darted by the sun, and capable of combining with the various substances it meets with; producing, by that means, different chemical changes. In general, he supposes it as unchangeable; and even in the prism, the atom of light is, he thinks, expanded rather than decomposed. Its principal chemical effect is to separate oxygen; and from this very constant separation of what is considered in this essay as the least compounded form of heat, it is concluded that light and heat actually repel each other; that their simultaneous appearance is really owing to this mutual repulsion, which, when sudden and violent, occasions the loudest and most dangerous explosions, particularly those of aurum and argentum fulminans, gunpowder, &c. With these views the author traces light as a component part in many substances, where it has not hitherto been supposed to exist, particularly in vegetables, whose functions and economy he has endeavoured to illustrate from the best observers in fertile ground, &c. &c. The sun, he thinks with Mr. Herschel, is luminous only, consisting of a substance in which light is a copious ingredient.

Various other incidental circumstances of ingenuity and importance occur: but for these we must refer to the volume. On many subjects the author has stepped beyond the beaten paths, sometimes with success; but the principal positions can only be decided on after repeated inquiry and very particular examination.

To return once more from our wanderings—the two next essays ‘On Sepulture in general, and on Sepulchral single Stones erect’—and ‘On Benevolence and Friendship (should it not have been *feeling*? for no part of the essay is connected with friendship) as opposed to Principle,’ are of the lighter kind. The former is a pleasing collection of passages from ancient authors, illustrating their customs respecting sepulture; and the latter a proper reprehension of the glaring and delusive colouring thrown over some admired characters, hiding their want of principle by a display of feeling or agreeable levity.

To the sonnets in blank verse we are not particularly partial. The name at least seems to have been misapplied; and we rather wish to take a specimen of this kind of poetry from the three pleasing sonnets in a subsequent article.

‘O sleep! and hast thou deign’d once more around
My temples, thy refreshing wreath to twine,

Moisten’d

Moiſten'd with fragrant balm, and grateful dews,
 Each anxious thought in ſilken ſlumbers bound;
 So oft of late dragg'd to my painful bed
 By force of opiate ſpell?—Thy gift renews
 O condeſcending power! my vigour loſt;
 I ſee with joy the face of morning ſhine:
 Swift in their paths again the ideas tread,
 Imprison'd long, and fetter'd as in froſt.
 Hail gentle Sleep!—But I in time forbear
 Thy tranquil ſoul to ruffle with my ſtrain:
 Still thy ſpontaneous favours let me ſhare,
 And not compel thee to my couch again.' P. 549.

The eſſay 'On the Aramic Language' is connected with the chronological obſervations on Ptolemy's canon. This language our author endeavours to ſhow was the Chaldean, while the ancient Hebrew was nearly the Phœnician in Samaritan characters; and the Syrian, or Aramic tongue, was eſſentially different from the Syrian of later ages. Various arguments are adduced in ſupport of this opinion, from paſſages in Ezra &c. But the whole is probably too far removed from general reading, to require our enlarging on it in a review of a popular work.

The Venetian ſtory, in its outline, is taken from Mrs. Pi-ozzi's Travels, and is filled up with much pathos and judgment. It highly intereſted and entertained us; but no extract would give an adequate idea of its effects.

The two odes we ſhall conſider together; and we give the preference to the genius of Danmonium, though that 'To Victory' is ſpirited and energetic. 'The Genius of Danmonium' is full of pictureſque imagery and pleaſing deſcription. In the following ſtanza, however, we again catch a view of an eaſtern colonization; but what we meant rather to remark is, that the author copies Celtic manners rather than the eaſtern, the parent and ſource of Gothic inſtitutions.

'Snatcht from the altars of the eaſt
 I ſee the fires of Danmon riſe!
 To mark the new-moon's ſolemn feaſt,
 Behold, they lighten to the ſkies:
 And, as aſſembled clans in ſilence gaze,
 The diſtant Karnes draw near, and kindle to the blaze!' P. 543.

The following ſtanzas are highly beautiful, or ſublimely terrific—

'Faſt by yon chafmed hill that frowns
 Cleſt by an elemental ſhock,

As ashen foliage light embrowns
 Its rude side ribb'd with massy rock ;
 Lo, on the pillar'd way the white-robe'd bands
 In long procession move, where proud the Cromlech stands.
 ' But see, where breaking thro' the gloom,
 Danmonium's warrior-genius speeds
 That scythed car, the dread of Rome !
 See, fiercer than the lightning, steeds
 Trampling the dead, their hoofs with carnage stain,
 Rush thro' the spear-strown field, and snort o'er heaps of
 slain.
 ' Such was the heart-inspiring theme
 Of bards who sung each recent deed ;
 Whether amid the mailed gleam
 Of war, they saw the hero bleed ;
 Or, whether, in the Druid's circling fane,
 They hymn'd to dreadful rites, the deep mysterious strain.'

P. 544.

The 'Observations on Hesiod and Homer, and the shields of Hercules and Achilles,' deserve particular attention. After offering some observations in defence of Hesiod, against the criticisms of Longinus, the author proceeds to observe,—what he afterwards more fully enlarges on,—that these scenes could not have been represented on any shield, and were never intended to have been so: they were wholly pictured by the imagination to the fancy, without any farther design. The following observations are very judicious—

' Without entering now into the dispute whether Hesiod was more antient than Homer, or whether the *Ασπίς Ἡρακλεος* was written by him, or some subsequent author ; I shall only observe that it is plain, one poet must have determined to try his strength with the other, or both must have had recourse to a description by some previous bard. For besides many similar scenes and images, some verses are literally the same. This could not have happened accidentally. It appears indeed to me from the internal evidence, that Hesiod's composition was the original.—It has a freer, bolder air. It has more of the terrible graces. It's colouring is not so distinct. The circumstances are more briefly, and rapidly touched on. It has more sublimity, but less beauty. It has not that appearance of care and art ; that laborious and nice arrangement of incidents. It is the "*monte decurrens annis, quem imbres super notas aluere ripas*;" while Homer's flows thro' the plain, smooth, and more uniformly majestic. It is what Virgil in many places is to Homer, what Sophocles is to Æschylus.

' The dragon, the serpents, the Lapithæan war, Perseus and the Gorgons,

Gorgonis, the assembled gods, with Apollo and the Muses, the port, the courting scene, the horse and chariot races, are omitted by Homer, perhaps because he could not vary them with advantage. In the battle, he fails, and even takes the most striking image, word for word, from Hesiod. In the previous circumstances, the council of the besiegers, and the ambush of the besieged, he is tame on comparison. Nor, are Pallas and Mars at the head of the citizens, in arms of gold, and of superiour stature like gods, equal to the same deity, standing on his car, "imbathed in blood, as he had stripp'd the fallen e'er they expired."—Or to Minerva with her spear, her helmet, and Ægis,

————— "as on she moved,
And fought the thickest ranks of cruel war." P. 437.

This author translates the shields of Hercules and Achilles into blank verse, in order to compare or contrast them more advantageously; and as Mr. Pope's translation, which was in rhyme, rendered it less fit for the comparison, so Mr. Cowper's, he thinks, from various imperfections, was by no means adapted to his purpose. The remarks on Mr. Cowper are peculiarly judicious. Of the translations we can only say, that they appear to us faithful, energetic, and pointedly descriptive: they cannot claim the polished elegance and high finish of some modern poetry; nor were these ornaments, perhaps, the translator's object. As they now stand, they fully justify the opinion we have transcribed in our last extract from this essay. In the beginning of Hesiod's poem, *τιτανος* is translated *silver*, though it is admitted in the note, that its real meaning is *gypsum*; but the other substance is preferred as better adapted for a shield. The author might have approached nearer the meaning, by adopting the word *spar*, a form of gypsum, and in many cases a substance highly ornamental.

The only remaining essay is, 'On the Valley of Stones and the Country near Linton,' a beautiful spot, if the author has not indulged the poetic licence, in the warmth of his description. We ought, however, to apologise for this intimation, which we should have rejected as illiberal, if we had not found him sometimes rising a little above the modesty of humble prose. But much must be forgiven in a warm enthusiastic admirer of beautiful scenery, and picturesque objects of nature.

We must now take our leave of these authors, whose works we have fostered with our attention, as scions of promise, perhaps already ornaments of the literary forest. In reality, we consider this as in many respects an important publication. In various parts it steps beyond the usual confines, and displays

plays many traces of vigorous and comprehensive minds. In philosophy, in criticism and history, its leading traits, we see many traces of valuable advances in science and knowledge. Four of the plates we have already noticed as representations of antiquities found in Devonshire; and one other, not mentioned, is the erect stone, the tomb of Seward on the borders of Scotland, described in the paper on sepulture.

We cannot, however, wholly part without a word of sober admonition, perhaps of reprehension. The typographical errors are too numerous; and though the important faults are marked in the Table of Errata, many little deformities occur, which retard with unpleasing sensations the attentive reader. Should this volume reach a second edition, an event by no means improbable, these may be corrected; and we would recommend, at the same time, a judicious curtailment of some of the longer essays, particularly that on the character of Pindar, and on the Population of Europe. Perhaps, had some of the more abstruse papers been omitted, the work might have been found more generally interesting and entertaining. As it is, the authors deserve our thanks; and we have little doubt but the public encouragement will induce them to add at least another volume, which in the Advertisement is partly promised.

Five Discourses, containing certain Arguments for and against the Reception of Christianity by the ancient Jews and Greeks. Preached at Croydon, in Surry, by John Ireland, A. M. Vicar of the said Church. To which are subjoined, illustrative Notes. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Faulder. 1796.

WE know not how to present a juster view of what these discourses contain, than by annexing the summary given by the author—

‘ Such, then, has been the progress of our thoughts concerning the Jew and the Greek. The former has been impelled to the acceptance of a spiritual Messiah by the perpetual dependence of his political condition, and by the ascendancy of his religious destination; while the cause of his infidelity is the frustrated hope of a temporal sovereignty. The latter has been invited to the gospel by the adaptation of its miracles and doctrines to the principles of his own criticism. But the conviction afforded by this mode of reasoning he also disclaims, on account of the irksome obedience commanded by the gospel, and his unwillingness to submit, in peace, to the sovereignty of any system; especially that which wanted the means of promoting its reception by the attendant influence of worldly authority.

authority. Of his remaining objections, one is furnished by a philosophy equally prejudiced against all religions, the other drawn from a superstitious spirit obstinately attached to the institutions of its national worship.

‘ But shall we have entered into a disquisition, gratifying to curiosity alone, and not capable of solid use? “Do we so fight, as one that beateth the air?” God forbid. For each of the argument here adduced will apply itself to the confirmation of our own faith. The inferences drawn for the Jew from the conduct of his history, are equally calculated for the Christian, since they comfort us with the assurance that we have received the true Messiah whom he disallowed. Meanwhile, the cause of his erroneous rejection will hardly tempt our minds to a dangerous imitation. It was a national cause, affecting only the sons of Israel. Our own faith, therefore remaining uncontaminated by the enquiry, we safely contemplate the infidelity of the Jew.

‘ Our views, we confess, were not so remote in our treatment of the Greek. If, in the present times, there are any disinclined to the gospel, they are such as would tread in his steps rather than in those of the Jew;—would affect the philosophical scepticism of the one, in preference to the more fullen and interested refusal of the other. Therefore, to them we have spoken through the person of the earlier unbeliever. Them we have endeavoured to persuade, by arguments appropriated to their assumed modes of thinking. But in them also we find the fatal objection which first strikes us in their corrupt models. It is the dreaded pain of religious obedience which tempts them to the profession of infidelity. If, in spite of its divine evidence, authority is still denied by them to the gospel, it is that its purity may not restrain them, and that they may deem themselves at liberty to “commit all iniquity with greediness.” But let this awful truth be well remembered: whether we believe or disbelieve, the great purposes of the gospel are travelling onwards to their accomplishment. And happy they, who, before the dreadful day of account, when the hidden motives of all our actions shall be produced “before men and angels,” can surmount the prejudices of earthly corruption which degraded the Jew,—the influence of a vain philosophy which perverted the Greek;—and penetrated with a due sense of that revelation which calls them to itself, can cry out to its divine author, in the language of earnest faith, renouncing all other confidence, “Lord, to whom shall we go? Thou hast the words of eternal life; and we believe, and are sure, that thou art that Christ, the Son of the living God.” p. 164.

Sketches of a History of Literature: containing Lives and Characters of the most eminent Writers in different Languages, ancient and modern, and Critical Remarks on their Works. Together with several Literary Essays. The Whole designed as a Directory, to guide the Judgment and form the Taste in reading the best Authors. By the late Robert Alves, A. M. To which is prefixed, a short Biographical Account of the Author. 8vo. Chapman. Edinburgh.

THE subject of this performance is interesting; and a production of such a nature, even if it should not be executed with extraordinary ability, cannot but amuse and inform the reader. The name of the author is, indeed, obscure; but want of fame does not always imply want of merit. From a sketch of his life prefixed to the volume, we find, that he was educated at the university of Aberdeen; that he afterwards officiated as a schoolmaster and a private tutor; that he was occasionally employed as a writer by the Scottish booksellers; and that he died while this work was in the hands of the printer.

In speaking of early poetry, he evinces an adherence to the prejudices of his countrymen, by treating of the works of Ossian, as if no doubts were entertained of their authenticity. But that point seems now to be adjusted; and we may, with some degree of confidence, consider those pieces as supposititious.

He properly represents poetry as the first exercise of rude nations in literary composition. To this art he assigns three stages in its progress to refinement. 'In the most savage state of society (he says), it will be rude, bold, metaphorical; but full of passion and nature. In the second stage, it will be more comprehensive in its objects, as well as phraseology; more correct; but less ardent; more simple than sublime. In the third stage, imagination, passion, and philosophy, will all unite to carry it to the highest perfection.'

In his view of the oriental learning and philosophy, he offers nothing new; and his account of the origin of Grecian literature contains no striking remarks. The lives and characters, however, of the principal Greek writers, are sketched with accuracy.

Proceeding to Roman literature, Mr. Alves traces it from the times of the poets Livius and Ennius to it's subsequent stages of improvement. Having reached the time of the great Roman orator, he says, 'simplicity of style seems to have been the distinguishing characteristic of the Ciceronian age:' but it may be observed, that it was more the characteristic of other writers

writers than of Cicero himself. Arriving at the Augustan age, he bestows high and deserved praise on Livy, Horace, and other ornaments of that period.

His account of the literature of modern Italy is not despicable; nor has he given an ill-drawn sketch of that of Spain and Portugal. In his strictures upon French writers, he treats Rousseau with some severity, but allows that the sentiments of that admired author are generally favourable to liberty and virtue. With regard to Montesquieu, he observes, that, 'to the liberal spirit diffused by his writings among his countrymen, may be partly ascribed the first sparks of freedom which blazed in France;' and of Voltaire he says, that he 'in part prophesied the present revolution.' That the literary efforts of these ingenious men contributed to prepare the minds of the French for the subversion of despotism, we have abundant reason to believe.

The survey of German literature is extremely superficial. Though Mr. Alves was unacquainted with the language of the Germans, he might easily have given a more full and satisfactory sketch of their progress in every branch of letters.

An historian of literature, even in a mere outline, might be expected to have spoken of many English writers who preceded Chaucer; but our author, after the mention of Alfred the Great and Richard I. as musicians and poets, proceeds to the fourteenth and following centuries. He is too brief in his remarks upon Chaucer, though his view of the character of that bard is just. Of Spenser, he affirms, that 'tenderness and generosity in the extreme; romantic love; a constant vein of humanity that does honour to human nature; high strokes of sublime and enchanting description; all tend to mark out and distinguish this great and amiable poet:' but he has not overlooked the faults of this object of his admiration; for he condemns the too frequent 'obtrusion of enchanted forests, distressed damsels, knights errant, giants, demons, dragons, and wizards;' is displeased with the flimsy veil of allegory which covers the Fairy Queen; and considers the moral as 'too jejune and bare to require such a parade of wild description.'

In his superficial view of the drama, he laments, with reason, the present darkness of 'the British hemisphere of dramatic poetry;' and recommends the revival of old plays of merit. Our theatrical managers do not wholly neglect this practice.

Cowley, Waller, and other poets, are properly characterised by Mr. Alves; and to Milton he pays that respect which is due to his transcendent merit. He is not, however, perfectly

happy in his discrimination of the poetical characters of Dryden and Pope.

He treats of Scottish literature *con amore*; and, among the modern poets of North-Britain, he has introduced himself. Though his self-love did not so far overcome his modesty as to induce him to praise himself, he was tempted to insert (for this part of the work was printed before his decease) a panegyric upon his own poem of the Weeping Bard, extracted from one of the Reviews, including a copious and a pleasing specimen of the piece.

To the history are subjoined literary essays, which chiefly involve comparisons and illustrations of ancient and modern authors. In comparing Milton with Shakspeare, Mr. Alves intimates his opinion, that the chief difference lies in expression. 'The thoughts of both (he says) are equally great: the latter, perhaps, is more metaphorical, more pregnant in allusions: but the other is more correct, more classically elegant. In tragedy, both have strong language and marked characters; but Shakspeare is more varied and natural, describing every shade and gradation of character.' He afterwards says, 'Milton, like Homer, is uniformly great;' but this assertion is not true of either of those poets, or of any writer who ever existed. The merits of Homer, Virgil, and Horace, are illustrated in distinct essays, with some taste and judgment. Herodotus and Livy are not unaptly compared; but the shades of resemblance and of difference, between Thucydides and Sallust, are less accurately traced. In the next essay, we again meet with the spurious Caledonian bard, who is compared with Otway.

The most distinguished orators who have adorned the British senate in modern times, are enumerated in one of the essays. 'John and Archibald, dukes of Argyle (we are informed) were remarkable for a strong and bold eloquence; and the earl of Chesterfield, their contemporary and rival, excelled in that kind which is regular, elegant, and pathetic.' The eloquence of the late earl of Chatham is well characterised, as 'ardent, abrupt, desultory, irregular.' The three greatest orators in the present parliament are thus described. 'Sheridan is correct, easy, and rhetorical: Fox is argumentative, comprehensive, versatile, and flows with an unbounded stream of unstudied eloquence. Pitt possesses singular abilities, and is more pointed, steady, and persuasive.' With respect to the first of these three senators, an addition might have been made to this delineation, by referring to his extraordinary powers of wit and pleasantry; and of the last it might have been said, that he is specious and sophistical.

One essay is appropriated to the effusions of severe sarcasm upon Dr. Johnson, whom, for well-known reasons, the Scots are not inclined to praise. Mr. Alves admits his pretensions to a considerable degree of literary merit; but represents him as a compound of prejudice, ill-nature, caprice, arrogance, vanity, envy, and malice, and as a superstitious cultivator of the forms of devotion, rather than the essence of religion, which did not manifest itself either in his heart or his life. The colouring of this portrait is certainly unjust; but some parts of the sketch bear a resemblance to the real character of Johnson. If this writer has censured him with too much acrimony, it must be allowed that many of his friends have extolled him beyond the bounds of truth.

It is proper to intimate, that this production was revised by the late lord Gardenstoun, who added various remarks to it, which, however, do not require particular quotation.

Notwithstanding occasional blemishes and imperfections both of style and statement, we may pronounce this work to be an useful companion for young students; nor will the more experienced scholar find it wholly undeserving of his attention.

Travels into different Parts of Europe, in the Years 1791 and 1792. With familiar Remarks on Places—Men—and Manners. By John Owen, A. M. &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1796.

WE are surprised at the late appearance of this narrative of a tour which was completed in the year 1792: but our surprise is not accompanied with the smallest suspicion that the publication was delayed, according to a report which the author mentions, 'for the convenience of adapting it to the humour of the times.' We are rather disposed to admit his excuses, than to indulge such a conjecture.

Mr. Owen does not profess to describe a new route, or to open sources of unexplored amusement. He acknowledges that 'the outline of his tour differs in very few respects from the ordinary track of fashionable travel;' but he thinks, not without reason, that the eagerness of the public will not easily be satiated by successive accounts of foreign countries and foreign manners. In the description even of similar scenes, he might have added, writers will exhibit many shades of diversity; and the customs and manners of the same people will not draw the same remarks from different travellers, if they are endued with vivacity, intelligence, and a spirit of observation.

As he affects not the character of a *connoisseur* or a *virtuoso*,

he does not minutely dwell on paintings, statues, or other works of art; but contents himself with a brief mention of the impressions which he received from a cursory view of those objects. Long and elaborate descriptions of such productions are, indeed, dry and uninteresting; and are poor substitutes for actual observation. Views of life and manners, and displays of human nature in all its changes and modifications, are more conducive to the entertainment and instruction of the general readers of a tour, than technical criticisms on the labours of the pencil and the chisel, diffuse accounts of coins and medals, or dissertations on a *cameo* or an *intaglio*.

Our author's course was first directed to the Netherlands, which had not then been wrested from the house of Austria. Thence he proceeded into the Dutch territories; entered Germany by the way of Liege; passed with rapidity through the western districts of the empire; traversed Switzerland with less precipitancy; and prosecuted his journey through Savoy and Piedmont. He amused himself for several months with the beauties and the antiquities of Italy; then crossed the Tirolese Alps; re-visited Switzerland; and made a short excursion to the south of France. He afterwards extended his *route* to Vienna; then, turning to the northward, hastened through the kingdom of Bohemia, passed through the Saxon electorate into the dominions of his Prussian majesty; and, returning to Holland by the circuitous course of Hamburg, closed at Harwich an extensive tour.

The dissensions between the inhabitants of the Netherlands and their Austrian sovereign had not entirely subsided, when our traveller landed in their country. A spirit of disaffection still lurked; and secret combinations still existed. But the next commotions were destined to arise from the revolutionary intrigues of the French, rather than from the exertions of an oppressed people, or the arts of Flemish pseudo-patriots. Of Van Eupen and Vandernoodt, the leaders of the insurrection against the emperor, Mr. Owen speaks in severe terms; and he is also unfavourable in his report of the general character of the Flemings; the most prominent features of which, he says, are ignorance, dullness, and obstinacy. He is scarcely more disposed to favour the Hollanders, whose mercenary disposition and illiberal manners he freely censures.

In his account of Spa, he assumes the air of a moralist, and makes such reflections as will suit other places which are promiscuously frequented by the votaries of pleasure and by valetudinarians. 'The rivulets of health (he observes) are swallowed up in the torrents of pleasure; the severity of regimen relaxes into the luxury of debauch; and the medicinal potion is supplanted

supplanted by the bacchanalian draught. Nor is this all: the harpies of fortune are disposed in every quarter of this Circean Elysium. The young and the incautious are inveigled by the specious appearances of personal splendour and titled consequence. Fortunes are thus committed, not to the mercy of a card, or the chance of a die, but to the artifice of those, whose sole talent is imposture, and whose sole property is vested in the funds of human weakness.—I cannot but believe, that more morals are debauched by the contagion of the vices of Spa, than nerves braced by the vigour of its air, and that more fortunes are ruined by the fascination of its amusements, than constitutions restored by the salubrity of its springs.

Of Basle, he gives a pleasing picture: 'It owes (he says) all its beauties to nature and to industry. Its only ornaments are, the landscapes which surround it, and the simple manners of those who inhabit it. Men, women, and children, all appeared engaged in the common cause of enriching its markets, and supporting its commerce. Here are no pastimes for the gay, no indulgences for the vicious: but the heart which can taste of purer pleasures, and rejoice in the felicity of the human race, may here receive no common gratification, in contemplating a virtuous, an united, and a happy people.'

His arrival at Lausanne calling Gibbon to his recollection, he paid a visit to his celebrated countryman, whom he represents as the *grand monarque* of literature at that town. 'His conversation (he adds) is correct and eloquent; his periods are measured, and his manner of delivering them solemn. But, though he talks too oracularly, he is, at his table, cheerful, frank, and convivial. His hospitalities are, however, not strictly patriotic: his predilection for the Swiss is notorious; and, as a love of pre-eminence may not be classed amongst the least of his failings, he seems to have decided well in the choice of his society.' The inhabitants of Lausanne may now lament the loss of one who enlivened and adorned their circles, and whose residence did honour to their community.

An extract from this work, containing a narrative of an excursion among the *glaciers* or icy mountains of Savoy, may serve to amuse the reader—

'The Glacier de Boissons (says Mr. Owen) is the first to which strangers are generally introduced. It makes scarcely any figure from the valley, standing among many others of much greater magnitude. Being severally furnished with a long stick pointed with iron, we ascended with ease the lower part of the mountain, which was covered with turf and not very steep; but the approach towards the ice was difficult, and the sticks were eminently useful. Previous to our arrival upon the level with the Mer-de-glace, we were stopped by the guides in order to view the magnificent prospect

spect before us. It presented a range of icy pyramids of the purest complexion, and of the boldest forms: we were filled with astonishment at a spectacle which blended so perfectly the grand and the beautiful.

Arrived at the summit of the mountain, we entered upon the Glacier, but found great difficulty in keeping our feet. The sun had glossed the surface, and rendered it almost impossible to tread with any degree of security. In passing amongst these frozen tracts, we came to many wide chasms and gulphs of a formidable depth. We threw down flakes of ice or stones, whose fall returned a tremendous sound. It was curious to observe upon the highest parts many masses of stone ready to precipitate; and upon the mountains in descending we saw some of dreadful bulk, which had at different times been tumbled from the summit of the Glacier. Pierre Balmat, our principal guide, related to us, that he was witness to the fall of one of the largest of these; and that it was attended with the most tremendous circumstances. Indeed it appears extraordinary that men should be found to inhabit regions, where they are continually exposed to these impending dangers. All the way as we descended, we observed the ruins of trees whose trunks had been split asunder, or their roots torn from the ground, by the violence of these *avalanches*. We had suffered but little fatigue by the whole of this expedition; the ice afforded us water of the most refreshing coolness, and strawberries abounded upon the mountain over which we passed on leaving the ice. Evening was now advancing: we re-entered our *char-a-bancs*, and shortly arrived at the priory of Chamouni.

Pierre Balmat undertook all the necessary arrangements for the business of Montanvert, which we were next to undertake: and the following morning, after an early mass, came to announce that all was in readiness. We were but four who resolved on this expedition; and we began to ascend the mountain, having Pierre Balmat at our head, and another guide bringing up the rear, each charged with their portion of luggage, provision, &c. The first league, or hour as it is called, was rugged, but not steep. It is so much of the way as is usually made by the mules. We began from this boundary to experience some difficulties: the track, without being less rugged, became more steep; and we had occasionally to pass along a precipice, which could not be regarded without dizziness, and from which a false step must inevitably have terminated the journey. The prospect before us annihilated all sense of fear or fatigue; and, after an arduous struggle of about three hours, we gained the summit of the Montanvert, and had the glorious *Mer-de-glace* full in view.

We had ascended the mountain very lightly clad, and had been much oppressed by heat. The transition was instantaneous to a chilling cold. The guides admonished us to wrap ourselves up
speedily,

speedily, as the air from the Glacier might have a dangerous effect. The Mer-de-glace resembles exactly a billowy expanse of water frozen while the waves were yet swelling with the majesty of the storm. We descended by a rugged path to the level of the ice; and by a proper union of courage and caution, ascended and descended over the vast columns of ice which covered this surface. Wherever the eye ranged, nothing presented itself but objects of terrible grandeur;—precipices, over which hung the loosening rocks—gulphs, where the projected stone could scarcely find a bottom. The whole valley appeared, as still heaving with the tempest. Before I quitted the ice, I cast a parting view at the vast range of rocky spires and columns that inclosed it. To the left, I saw the vale of Chamouni far below; and to the right, the Glacier extended more than twenty leagues among regions inaccessible to human discovery. I felt an enthusiasm, which is revived in the narration—but which the most elaborate description is ill calculated to communicate.

‘ Our repast was prepared by the industrious guides in a shed known by the name of Blair’s cabin. It is principally formed by stones, placed without cement upon each other; and the table is of one single stone. It was, as Balmat reported, erected by a gentleman of the name of Blair, in consequence of a violent hail-storm—not unusual in these regions—from which himself and his friends had suffered. The traveller owes Mr. Blair gratitude for this piece of philanthropy. The interior of this cabin is covered with a register of names engraved upon the walls by those who have visited these scenes.’ Vol. i. p. 226.

‘ Having finished our repast, and allowed due time for our guides to refresh themselves, we began to descend. The beginning of the descent was not accompanied with any particular difficulties: but the latter part, which pursued a track different from that by which we ascended, was steep and hazardous. We were occasionally startled by the distant rumbling of those *avalanches*, which are (particularly during the heats) detaching loose masses of ice or stone, and precipitating them with violent explosion. These mountains are not without their luxuries. We were presented in different stations of the descent with strawberries and goats-milk of delicious flavour. Those who have felt the heat can alone imagine how grateful these refreshments proved. Having at length effected our descent, we traversed a valley through which flowed the Arveron;—this, like all the bottoms in the neighbourhood of these mountains, was strewed with those fragments of stone, which once occupied a higher situation. Our guide now conducted us along this uncouth track to one of the noblest objects in nature—the source of the Arveron. It is a recess hollowed out by the hand of

nature, and all the colours that enrich it are of her own pencilling. Imagine the openings of a mighty cavern—scooped in the centre—and over-arched by various masses of ice in forms the most wild, yet the most majestic.—Picture to yourself the purest tints, blending into each other with the most enchanting softness, and the most regular gradation. From the centre of this cave thus artfully formed,—thus sublimely coloured,—imagine a torrent issuing with violence, and tumultuously rolling among masses of rock, which obstruct the channel and spread its waters into foam. If the picture be not entire, throw into the canvas the surrounding scenery;—the vale of Chamouni decorated in all the charms of industry and culture;—the hoary magnificence of the Glaciers;—and the sombre majesty of those stubborn rocks, which retain no trace of vegetation:—let the setting sun throw his last rays over this groupe;—and then tell me, whether it be enthusiasm to class this with the noblest productions of nature.’ Vol. i. p. 233.

Though many of the letters of our traveller are devoted to observations upon Rome, we find nothing particularly novel or striking in them. In his account of Naples, he justly reprobates the vicious and profligate habits of the people of all ranks; nor does he highly praise the character of the Italians in general.

In his short visit to France, he was present at Lyons during the first disturbance consequent on the late revolution, which stained that (now ruined) city with blood. He was at the theatre with a party of females, whose fears of danger he had allayed by a favourable report of the general state of the town.

‘ In this situation (he says) we received the first intelligence of an actual insurrection, and acts of the most brutal cruelty already perpetrated. The “Payfan Magistrat,” a piece professedly adapted to revolutionary feelings, was exhibited; and the applause which it produced from the audience, was evidently mixed with considerable tumult. The progress of the representation was frequently interrupted by vociferous demands for *ça ira*, and the Marseillois march. This last is a furious war song, the air of which in a military or theatrical band is singularly noble and impressive. The words which were sung by two soldiers at the burning of the pictures, are not a little sanguinary and vindictive. These clamours did not exhibit the most flattering symptoms. Ladies were observed quitting their boxes in succession, and we began to see ourselves nearly deserted. In the mean time the Petits Savoyards, which was the after-piece, seemed to engage no part of the audience’s attention, who were violent in their demands for the Marseillois; which at length prevailed over every other movement. We judged

it expedient now to withdraw; and found the servant ready to acquaint us, with trembling accents, that a mob had assembled and beheaded seven officers, and that they were now bearing these heads in procession through the streets. The apprehension of meeting this inhuman procession was a subject of cruel anxiety, till we arrived in the Place Bellecourt.

‘ Having escorted my charge to their apartments, and trimmed the lights, which the palpitating valet (who was an Austrian) had ranged at the first call of the mob, I descended, in order to inform myself of what had been acted in this bloody drama. It appears, that the populace were first excited to insurrection by some volunteers from Marseilles; and that, at about five o'clock, they assembled and forced a guard-house, from which they dragged an officer of rank, who, in company with six others, had been arrested by the municipality, upon suspicion of corresponding with the enemy, and confined for trial. He plunged into the Saone in order to escape their fury; but they fired upon him, and having dragged him ashore, struck off his head, and there executed the same vengeance upon the remaining six. By this time, nine o'clock, the mob had acquired considerable strength; and were celebrating the most outrageous orgies before the Hotel de Ville, round the heads, which they had elevated upon a pole. All the streets were illuminated throughout the city, by order of the mob, and straggling parties were parading through different quarters, and vociferating “Vive la Nation!”

‘ I shall not intrude upon your sensibility, by painting the situation of my friends in the interval of two hours, which passed between the time of our return to the hotel, and that of the mob's procession. At eleven o'clock the tumult, which had hitherto been confusedly heard, became more distinctly audible: and the great increase of uproar seemed to announce some change of scene. A few minutes only allowed us to conjecture, when the whole body of the mob entered the square. They formed a long, and to appearance, a regular train; the foremost of which bore torments and pikes, upon the points of which last were the trophies of their vengeance. This procession, I speedily learnt, was founded upon a new event: thirteen priests had been selected out of two hundred, who were confined; and it was the blood of these that now provoked their cannibal joy. Yells and groans accompanied their march through the square, and the very tone of their shouts conveyed the expressions of murder. It had appeared upon enquiry, that the officer, on whom the first vengeance-fell, had been apprehended in our hotel, a fortnight previous to this event; and the first entrance of the mob into this quarter admitted of an interpretation, which did not tend to diminish the alarms for our safety. The heads were, however, suspended upon the trees, and the populace filed
off

off to their head quarters before the Hotel de Ville. By this time some active measures were taking by the municipality, and a patrol of horse, between the hours of eleven and twelve, was scouring the principal streets. A gradual calm ensued, and by two o'clock the danger seemed to have subsided.' Vol. ii. p. 329.

In his tour through the southern parts of Germany, Mr. Owen found the name of an Englishman productive of respect from the people, while that of a Frenchman excited disgust and odium. He observed the eagerness of the ruling powers to prevent the dissemination of democratic opinions; and did not find that their endeavours had, as will frequently happen, a contrary effect. The people appeared to him to be satisfied with their government, particularly in the Austrian territories; and considered themselves as enjoying more personal safety under the sway of an arbitrary court, than the republican French can boast under the shadow of a free constitution.

Of the present emperor, he remarks, that his features indicate that species of tranquillity which is more allied to dullness than to benignity; and that his physiognomy exhibits no marks of the soldier or the statesman. Of this prince's capital, he speaks in panegyrical terms, with regard to the buildings, the walks, academical and other establishments, and general accommodations. He considers the character of the inhabitants as that of a tranquil class, more attached to sensuality than riot; and he applauds their liberal treatment of strangers. He does not think that the charge of gluttony, with which they are stigmatised, is more applicable to them than to the voracious members of English corporations: but he admits that they are fond of good cheer, and that they cultivate indulgence and mirth in every form. It might be supposed, that the harmony of the town would be frequently disturbed by the revels of intemperance, and the rage of intoxication. This, however, is so far from being the case, that the streets are profoundly quiet at all hours of the night. Nor is the nocturnal tranquillity of the town frequently invaded in other respects; for robberies rarely occur, and fires are still more uncommon.

By the celerity of his progress through Bohemia, Saxony, and Brandenburg, Mr. Owen was precluded from opportunities of making correct or satisfactory observations on the manners of the people or the customs of the respective countries. He has therefore declined to expatiate on points which he did not accurately examine. If all travellers had equal modesty, error and absurdity would be less conspicuous in narratives of tours.

Upon the whole, these volumes are lively, agreeable, and amusing. If we do not meet with profundity of remark, we are not disgusted with obtrusive affectation: if the accounts are sometimes too superficial, and the incidents are occasionally unimportant, the animation of the narrative is pleasing; and, if the style and diction are not uniformly correct, ease and smoothness are more prevalent than harshness or dissimilarity. It may also be observed, that the author manifests some honourable traits of character, and evinces a regard for well regulated liberty.

Nereis Britannica; or a Botanical Description of the British Marine Plants, in Latin and English: accompanied with Drawings from Nature. By John Stackhouse, Esq. Fellow of the Linnean Society. No. I. Folio. 12s. Sewed. B. and J. White. 1795.

WHEN any branch of science, embracing a number of objects, has its first principles clearly established, and its outlines pretty accurately sketched, the different compartments will best be filled up, if cultivated separately by different individuals with circumstances and talents suited to the undertaking. This has already been done in many instances in the science of botany; and we have now the satisfaction of seeing some of the most obscure tribes of plants, viz. the *Fuci*, the *Alga*, and the *Conserve*, undertaken by a gentleman whose local situation is particularly favourable to the purpose, and whose abilities, judging from the part of the work now before us, are happily suited to its execution.

Our great extent of sea-coast, and its various aspects dependent upon our insular situation, are circumstances which give a peculiar propriety to the investigation of these subjects in this country; and foreign botanists had, on these accounts, a kind of right to expect it from us.

The *Historia Fucorum* by professor S. G. Gmelin, published in 1768, is the only work which has been written expressly on the *Fuci*; and this is a work of great merit as far as it goes: but many new species have been discovered since that work was written; and the numerous errors in the synonyms, hardly avoidable on subjects so imperfectly described and so little understood, have led our countryman Mr. Hudson, as well as other writers, into perplexities nearly, if not altogether inextricable. Mr. Stackhouse seems to have been aware of this, and has been more sparing of synonyms; but still we believe that he has, in a few instances, been mistaken; these mistakes

mistakes however will easily be corrected when the public shall be favoured with the very accurate discriminations of the species, the result of the united labours of Dr. Goodenough and Mr. Woodward, which, we understand, are to appear in the third volume of the Transactions of the Linnæan Society.

In a Preface, printed, as is the whole work, both in Latin and English, the author points out the insufficiency of the Linnæan character of *FUCUS*, which he says applies only to *eight* or *ten* out of nearly *seventy* species; and not very accurately even to these. The remainder, he thinks, may be divided into such as have a *jelly-like pulp*, sometimes uncovered and lying in the folds or wrinkles of the plant, sometimes included in a tender pellicle on the smooth surface of the frond, but without granulations: such as are furnished with *small round dark-coloured granules*, either imbedded in the surface of the frond, or affixed to the stem: such as have *pedunculated globules*: and lastly, such as have *tubercles* or *warts*.

In a Postscript immediately following the Preface, the author combats Gmelin's supposition of *unisexual* and *asexual* plants; nor is he more disposed to adopt the theory of Gærtner, that the granules of fructification in marine plants are merely *gums filled with medullary substance*. These opinions had been supported at considerable length by his friend T. Velley, esq. who, in a dissertation prefixed to his *coloured figures of marine plants*, had moreover attempted to refute the opinions of Réaumur which had been the basis of the Linnæan character of fucus. We confess that Réaumur's idea of the pencils of silky fibres on the surface of the frond, or in the cavities of the air bladders, being the male parts of fructification, is liable to insuperable objections; for, 1st. The existence of anthers has never been well established, though the anther and not the filament is the essential part of a stamen. 2d. These pencils of fibres are found upon plants in a very young state, long before there is any appearance of female fructification. 3d. They exist at all seasons of the year, without undergoing any apparent change, and are the same before the formation of the germen, and after the ripening of the fruit. For these and other reasons which might be assigned, we wish Mr. Stackhouse would give a very particular attention to this curious part of his subject: and, as he seems to expect that considerable discoveries may be made by examining the plants at every different season of the year, aided by powerful microscopes, we shall anxiously look for the fruits of his researches in his next fasciculus. May not these bundles or pencils of fibres be destined to secrete air from the juices of the plant, or to separate it from the surrounding medium?

The *fasciculus* now before us contains coloured figures of seventeen different fuci, all drawn to the size of nature, except the *f. digitatus* and *polychides*, whose unwieldy bulk renders them but awkward subjects for the pencil. The parts of fructification, at least those supposed to be such, are subjoined to the different figures; and magnified drawings are given when necessary. Of these seventeen plants *two* are entirely new, and *two* others are now figured for the first time. The pencils of fibres are not expressed in either of the figures of *fucus vesiculosus*, though we believe they always exist; but in every other respect the drawings are unexceptionable; and, what is rare in subjects of natural history, they are chastely coloured.

After remarking that the specific characters are in many instances improved, and that the observations given in English are frequently more than mere translations from the Latin, we present our readers with the following extract as a specimen of the work—

• FUCUS SERRATUS.

Fucus. fronde plana, dichotoma, ferrata, ad apices tuberculata. Linn. Syst. p. 811.—Sp. P. 1626.—4 Hist. Ox. 3. 648.—Bast. l. 6. p. 120.—Light. 902.—With. Bot. arr. 3. 242.—Hudl. 176.—R. Syn. 42.—Gmel. 57.—Act. Gall. 1711. p. 285. et pars 2^{da} 1772.

RADIX irregularis, subtus plana, agglutinata.

CAULIS nodosus, cartilagineus.

FOLIA, plana, punctata, bifurcata, costâ intermediâ.

A. FRUCTIFICATIO.

Masc ? Vesiculæ glabræ in fronde ordine regulari immersæ, ad oras fibrosæ.

Fœm ? Vesiculæ glabræ, terminales vel laterales, in fructum mucosum congestæ.

OBSERVATIONES.

Planta hæc, omnium vulgatissima, ferraturis foliorum facile dignoscitur. E basi subrotunda, faxis adhærenti, ad altitudinem pedalem, vel supra, assurgit. Habitus, dichotomus, et divaricatus: latitudo foliorum varia, rarò autem uncialis; membranâ ex utrâque costæ parte, penicillis fibrosis, ordinatim dispositis instructâ. Penicilli hi, si microscopium adhibeas, oras urceolorum feminalium amplectuntur. Ineunte hyeme, ut obiervavi, summitates foliorum turgescunt, tuberculis per totam superficiem nullo ordine glomeratis, humore tenaci superfusis. Vascula hæc quoque urceolos referunt, fibris tamen ad oras omninò destituta. Observandum est Linnæum essentialem fuci characterem monœcium esse velle, qui quidem

quidem character generi universo, ut nunc saltem ordinatur, minime convenit, villi etiam in hac specie extus apparent, non "intus sunt aspersi." L. Gen. Pl. p. 569. Color plantæ fuscus et in quibusdam olivaceus; juxta basim, niger; fructus maturus sub-luteus. Et si fructus granulatus incipiens in plantis adultis omnifere tempore conspiciatur, raro tamen maturefcit, et, ut supra notavi, nunquam nisi * hybernis mensibus. Tunc quidem intumescit fructus, et penè totus gelatinosus et subdiaphanus evadit, vesiculis prominentibus humore tenaci et liquido superfusus.

Hab. ad rupes passim.

SERRATED FUCUS, OR SEA WRACK †.

Fucus. frond flat, forked, with a midrib; ferrate-toothed; fructifications terminating, tubercled.

P L A T E S.

Hist. Ox. xv. 9. 1.—Bast. op. t. 11. f. 3.—Act. Gall. 1711.—9. f. 10.—ib. 1772. T. 3. f. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9.—Vellcy's Inq. T. 1. (opt. Fruct. fœm.)

ROOT, irregular, swelling from the base of the stem, flat at bottom. **STEM**, cartilaginous, knobbed.

LEAF, flat, forked, punctured, mid-ribbed.

FRUIT, pitcher-shaped or ovate vessels: male and female distinct.

OBSERVATIONS.

The serratures sufficiently distinguish this plant, which stands at the head of the genus in the Species Plantarum of Linnæus, and is, perhaps, the most universal among them. The leaf appears dotted on each side of the mid-rib; these dots have pencils of whitish hairs. With the assistance of glasses these dots appear to be urn-shaped or rather semi-ovate vessels, deep immersed in the substance of the leaf and empty at top; their rims fringed with shining, fibrous, glass-like threads. Towards winter the upper parts of many of the principal-leaves, which through the summer had shewn incipient fructification, grow turgid, and appear covered with tubercles; they are now mucilaginous, and the colour alters to a dirty yellow. On examining these tubercles with a glass, they appear of the same shape as the former, bellying out at bottom, and contracted at the mouth, and overflowing with a clear mucous fluid. As one part only of this plant assumes this appearance, it

* Quoddam simile evenit in plantis quamplurimis cryptogamicis.

† I have added the old English name of Sea Wrack in conformity with Lightfoot. It originally comprehended the marine plants indiscriminately, in the same manner as Alga among the ancients. "Projecta vilior alga."

seems highly probable this is a monœcious plant; the * pencilled dots being probably the male, and the mucous tubercles the female fructification †. These plants, when lying in water, convert it speedily into a ‡ thick liquor, which probably is generated on the surface and may serve to convey the impregnating particles from the vessels on each side of the mid-rib, to those clustered together at the extremities.

‘Lightfoot says the Dutch prefer this species, as being destitute of mucous vessels, for preserving their crabs and lobsters. He likewise says it does not abound so much with lixivial salts as the other species. However this and all the larger kinds serve a very beneficial purpose exclusive of the rich manure they afford; as they are converted by a slow process by fire into kelp, which is an essential ingredient in the making of glass.

Hab. common on rocks, below high-water mark.’ P. 1.

As Mr. Stackhouse has in some degree opened a new and curious field of inquiry to those who are fond of botany, it may not be improper to furnish the reader with his account of the mode of displaying specimens of marine plants on paper, previous to drying them—

‘For this purpose a clean piece of writing paper must be procured of the size of the plant, which must be placed at the bottom of a soup plate, or larger dish, as may be necessary, and flooded with water to the depth of an inch, or more. When this is done, the specimen must be placed in the water, having been first washed in repeated changes of water to clear it of sand, and other impurities. The plant will immediately assume its natural form, and habit of growth; which may be gently assisted by a large needle fastened to a pencil stick, or any other sharp instrument. When the specimen is in a position to please the eye, the water must be drained off by a gentle inclination of the plate, till it settles on the paper. In this state it must be removed, without suffering the paper to dry, and placed in a quire of blotting paper, under a gentle pressure of books, if no botanic press is at hand. The following day, or within the space of a few hours in the larger specimens, the plant must be moved into fresh paper, and in many cases it will require

* See the note in the English Preface, and the fortuitous coincidence of opinion in some respects between the author and a celebrated French naturalist. p. III.”

† My friend, major Velley, has accurately drawn the tubercled summit of this plant (Pl. 1.), but not considering it as monœcious he has omitted the pencilled vesicles.

‡ There are many circumstances attending the fruiting of these plants, which are yet undiscovered, the tamarik-leaved *F.* emits at the summit a fluid, which is of a faint bluish purple. As this is one of the bladder suci, and consequently agreeably to my theory monœcious, may not the oleaginous fluid, in conveying the impregnation, cause this appearance?

shifting every other day for a fortnight, or longer; during which time the drier the room is, the less danger will there be of the plant getting mouldy: and it is necessary to observe, that smooth thin cartridge paper is preferable to blotting paper for the subsequent changes. It likewise should be noted, that in case of any of the jelly like, clammy species which adhere to paper being preserved dry, the operation must be effected by means of oiled paper.'

P. V.

The History of Dahomy, an inland Kingdom of Africa; compiled from authentic Memoirs; with an Introduction and Notes. By Archibald Dalzel, formerly Governor at Whydah, and now at Cape-Coast-Castle. 4to. 15s. Boards. Evans. 1793.

THIS work, although printed in the year 1793, was not published until very lately; an apology which we think it necessary to make for our apparent neglect of a very useful history. It is important to possess authentic memoirs of the manners of the ruder nations of men who are under little more controul than that of the will, or rather the arbitrary caprice of their rulers, who know none of the systems of civilised life, and who have preserved their ancient habits even amidst no inconsiderable intercourse with Europeans. In this respect the work before us will not disappoint the expectation of the reader, as it contains much original information concerning a people with whom we are connected as dealers in slaves, and whose history may be supposed to throw some light upon the controversy so long carried on respecting the justice of that trade.

This history is compiled from the joint observations of Mr. Robert Norris of Liverpool, of Lionel Abson, esq. the present British governor at Whydah, and of Mr. Dalzel. Former authors have also been consulted,—their supposed errors rectified,—and, for the advantage of future navigators and historians, particular attention has been paid to the orthography of the names of places, of which we have here something like a common standard. These improvements are explained and illustrated in a Preface of considerable length by the editor of the work.

In the Introduction we have a general account of the situation, produce of the soil, and manners and customs of Dahomy. The following account of the form of their government will give the reflecting reader a pleasing opportunity of comparing their manners with those of more refined courts, in the valuable article of *servility*—

‘ We shall not, therefore, dwell on the religion, but pass on to the government and manners of the Dahomans, which deserve more particularly to be considered. The former is the most perfect despotism that exists, perhaps, on the face of the earth. The policy of the country admits of no intermediate degree of subordination between king and slave; at least in the royal presence, where the prime minister is obliged to prostrate himself with as much absolute submission as the meanest subject; all acknowledging the right of the sovereign to dispose of their persons and property at pleasure. Beyond the precincts of the palace, indeed, the ministers enjoy very eminent privileges. It is true, they are forbid the wearing of sandals, and other ornaments peculiar to royalty; or to use such an umbrella as a white man; yet their inferiors must salute them with bent knees, and clapping of hands: they may sit on high stools, ride on horseback, be carried in hammocks, wear silk, maintain a numerous retinue, with large umbrellas of their own kind, flags, drums, trumpets, and other musical instruments. But, on their entrance at the royal gate, all these insignia are laid aside. The silk garment is substituted by a tunic and a pair of drawers, made of cotton, manufactured in the country; the neck is adorned with a valuable string of coral; a pair of broad, silver bracelets encircle the wrists; at the side hangs a silver-hilted scymitar, while the hand grasps an ivory club. Thus equipped, one of the ministers of state is always found in waiting at the palace gate; and in this garb only may he enter, which must be with the utmost caution and respect, and not till the monarch’s permission be signified by one of the women. On his entrance, he crawls towards the apartment of audience, on his hands and knees, till he arrives in the royal presence, where he lays himself flat on his belly, rubbing his head in the dust, and uttering the most humiliating expressions. Being desired to advance, he receives the king’s commands, or communicates any particular business, still continuing in a recumbent posture; for no person is permitted to sit, even on the floor, in the royal presence, except the women; and even they must kiss the earth, when they receive or deliver the king’s message.

‘ The king’s sons, not excepting the heir apparent, have no rank; being obliged to salute the ministers with clapping of hands, in a kneeling attitude. On such occasions, however, those officers, out of respect to the blood-royal, hasten to take them by the hand, and raise them from such an humble posture.

‘ The king, and all his subjects, receive strangers with the most remarkable courtesy. Ambassadors, from whatever state, are not put to the necessity of learning the Dahoman etiquette from the master of the ceremonies. Every one salutes the sovereign, according to the fashion practised in his own country. Chairs are placed for European governors, or masters of ships, upon which they sit,

covered, till the king makes his appearance, when they make a bow, standing, and uncovered; after which, they resume their seats, and put on their hats. Sometimes the Dahoman monarch has been known to shake hands with an European; but this is a very uncommon mark of royal condescension, and bestowed only on some great favourite.

‘White visitors are always honoured with a glass of some cordial liquor, filled with the king’s own hand, which if refused, is apt to give offence. Favours of this kind are received with avidity by his own subjects, not so much for the sake of the liquor as the honour conferred on them. On such occasions the subject lies on his back, while the king holds the bottle to his mouth. In this posture he must drink till the royal hand be withdrawn; which sometimes does not happen before the whole contents be emptied, especially when he has a mind to sport with the drinker.’ P. vii.

There is no instance, in the history of this nation, of the deposition of a sovereign. Passive obedience and non-resistance are here found in perfection; the humiliation of the ministers of state contributes powerfully to keep the people in a state of subjection. The king maintains a considerable standing army, the payment of which chiefly depends on the success of the expeditions in which they are engaged. An Amazonian force also exists in this kingdom, and, we believe, in this alone. Within the walls of the different royal palaces are immured no less than three thousand women, several hundreds of whom are regularly trained to the use of arms, under a female general. Europeans are sometimes gratified with a review of those female troops; and on very great emergencies the king sometimes takes the field at the head of them. The chief part of the public revenue arises from voluntary gifts, by a duty on commerce, and a profit from captives taken in war and sold at market. The shells called *cowries* are the current coin of the country; a thousand of them are reckoned equal to half a crown. Disbursements from the king’s house are made in bunches of cowries strung together, containing two thousand each. The king’s receipts and expenditure are nearly equal,—the money which flows into the royal coffers circulating again among the people. The palaces are mean edifices; their chief ornament are *human skulls* disposed in various figures; and if the architect of such ornamental work finds he has not enough to complete his design, more heads are struck off to supply the deficiency. The king receives white men in a very hospitable manner, with great gallantry providing cooks who dress their victuals according to the fashion of their respective countries.

After this general account of the manners of the people,
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our author enters upon a history of the reigns of their kings from the beginning of the present century, before which period it is too much involved in the obscurity and uncertainty of traditional reports, to afford regular materials. Since then, however, records appear to have been kept with considerable fidelity. We shall not follow our author in the detail of the several reigns, which are but transitions from one scene of tyranny and bloodshed to another, but must observe that it appears throughout the whole to be an object with him to prove that wars did not originate in these African states from the desire of obtaining slaves for the Europeans. This may be true in some degree: but it may be equally true that they have been more frequently entered into since the trade began; for he allows that the cruelty of the Dahoman kings gives way to the considerations of interest, and consequently that they may be induced to provide more, as well as to *spare* more, for the European market. The subject of the slave-trade, however, he informs us, has been purposely avoided; because the discussion already excited might render any thing said here unnecessary. But he observes in the Preface, that 'whatever evils the slave-trade may be attended with (and there is no good without some mixture of evil) this we are sure of, it is incery to the unfortunate brave; and not less to poor wretches, who, for a small degree of guilt, would otherwise suffer from the butcher's knife; too many instances of which have fallen under the consideration of travellers, and of which more than one occurs in this history.' This argument has been so often used in defence of the slave-trade, that it may seem superfluous to take notice of it. It is certainly the most plausible that can be made use of: but we can allow it only a very small portion of weight until the question shall be determined, whether it be preferable to be put to death at once, or to live a life of slavery in a distant land, apart from friends and relatives, and cut off from the enjoyments to which nature had familiarised them. Cruelty must be estimated, first by the mind it is inflicted upon, and secondly, like all calamities, by its duration. Here, in our opinion, the question seems to be between the cruelty of a few minutes, and that of many years; between the death inflicted upon one whose hopes and fears are cut off at once, and the fate of him who in perpetual slavery acquires a tormenting relish for that happiness and prosperity which he never beheld in his own country, and must not hope for in that to which he has been transported. The observation which follows on the tendency of European nations towards absurd and destructive wars, is highly just. It cannot be too much or too often censured; but the sneer at the Gallic philosopher whetting his knife is not equally

entitled to our approbation. It is neither an argument nor a fact. *Who* have given edge to the Gallic knife, and furnished it with victims?—Those who surrounded France with an immense army, by whose means they expected to dictate its form of government.

Of the history of the kings of Dahomy, a great part is judiciously selected and corrected from the accounts of Smith, Snelgrave, and other writers. The reign of Trudo occupies about sixty pages, at the conclusion of which our author sums up his character, observing with some shrewdness, that ‘if he (Trudo) is accused of want of feeling, it will be found to be a true *belligerent insensibility*, alike to his own calamities and those of other people.’ In fact, the difference between the savage and the civilised tyrant is less in the enormity of their guilt, than in the form and ceremony which accompanies it. *Trudo*’s successor, *Bossa Abadee*, made a worse king; his reign being particularly unfortunate to his country. His private life was also more deeply stained with cruelty. The *Mayhou*, or master of the ceremonies, took up arms in 1735, to free his country from the tyranny under which it groaned.

‘Great, indeed, must have been the provocations that induced the *Mayhou* to take this desperate step: for it is the disposition of the Dahomans to think favourably of their king, and to approve his actions. They reverence him with a mixture of love and fear, little short of adoration. When I asked a Dahoman, just before his going to battle, if he was not apprehensive of finding the enemy too strong; “I think of my king,” said Dakou, “and then I dare engage five of the enemy myself.” I am anxious for your safety, said I, and shall be happy that you escape the dangers of the day. “It is not material,” replied he; “my head belongs to the king, not to myself: if he please to send for it, I am ready to resign it; or if it be shot through in battle, I am satisfied—it is in his service.” Even at this day, after a tyranny of forty years, every Dahoman possesses the same sentiments; their loyalty and attachment remain unshaken. Though the people are daily falling victims to the avarice or anger of their prince, and there is not an individual in his dominions who has not lost some near and dear connexion by his orders, yet their misfortunes are not attributed to him, but entirely to their own indiscretions; and whatever the king does, they are persuaded is right. Such blind submission and obedience is probably no where else to be found.’ P. 69.

Not, we believe, now to be found: but something resembling it prevailed in France when the people devoted their lives to the service and glory of the *Grand Monarque*.

Mr. Norris’s Journey to the Court of *Bossa Abadee*, in 1772, contains much curious matter. He informs us, which we

do not recollect to have met with before, that it is a state maxim with the Dahomans, that parents have no sort of property in their children; they belong entirely to the king, are taken from their mothers at an early age, and distributed in villages remote from the places of their nativity; where they remain subject to his future approbation of them, with but little chance of their being ever seen, or at least recognised, by their parents afterwards. The motive for this is, that there may be no family connections or combinations, no associations that might be injurious to the king's unlimited power. In this journey also, we have many particulars of the natural history of the kingdom,—of the Harmattan, a wind which blows periodically from the interior parts of Africa,—and of the manners of the natives. His account of the *customs* is very full. These are periodical murders of several hundred innocent persons, at the pleasure of the king. The following extract will exhibit one branch of the cruelty practised on these occasions—

‘ I should have set off on my return to Whydah early on the morning of the 16th of February, which was the last day of the annual customs, on which the king distributes a profusion of presents among his people; but I was prevailed upon to remain till evening, at the request of my attendants, who hoped to pick up something in the scramble of the day. On this occasion a large stage is erected near one of the palace gates, adorned with flags and umbrellas, and surrounded with a fence of thorns, to keep off the rabble. On this are piled heaps of Silecias, checks, calicoes, and a variety of other European and Indian goods, with a great many fine cotton clothes that are manufactured in the Eyeo country, and a prodigious quantity of cowries. When all is ready, the king comes upon the stage, accompanied by any of the governors, or captains of ships, that may be there, and attended by the Tamegan, Mayhou, and a few others of his head men, to each of which he gives, according to their rank, the choice of an Eyeo cloth, and a string of coral beads. His subordinate officers are then called over from among the crowd below, and receive each a piece of cloth, and some cowries, as a mark of their master's approbation and regard. The king then throws a bunch of cowries with his own hands among the crowd; on which his women begin to fling the remainder of the goods indiscriminately among the multitude: the white men, if they please, and the Tamegan and his companions, assisting. And finally, as some cruelty must accompany all their exhibitions, a man tied neck and heels, an alligator muzzled, and a couple of pigeons, with their wings clipped, are thrown off the stage among the crowd, where a confusion, greater, if possible,

than what has preceded, ensues, in scrambling for the heads of each, to the great amusement of the king. Whoever are lucky enough to carry off the prizes, which consist of the heads of the victims, are each rewarded with a handsome present. This is the last human sacrifice at the customs, and is a part of the ceremony which the whites seldom stay to see performed; but, if report may be credited, the carcase of the human victim is almost wholly devoured, as all the mob below will have a taste of it.' p. 146.

In Part III. we have the life of Adahoonzou II. late king of Dahomy, and some account of the present sovereign, Wheenooheh. In these we find only a repetition of the same barbarities, without a trait of wisdom, goodness, or clemency, to vary the shocking narrative. The following speech of the late king Adahoonzou, 'upon hearing what had passed in England upon the subject of the slave trade,' may perhaps be reckoned an exception: at least it is too curious to be omitted. It is *said* to have been made to governor Abson.

'I admire the reasoning of the white men; but, with all their sense, it does not appear that they have thoroughly studied the nature of the blacks, whose disposition differs as much from that of the whites, as their colour. The same Great Being formed both; and since it hath seemed convenient for him to distinguish mankind by opposite complexions, it is a fair conclusion to presume, that there may be as great a disagreement in the qualities of their minds. There is likewise a remarkable difference between the countries which we inhabit. You, Englishmen, for instance, as I have been informed, are surrounded by the ocean, and, by this situation, seem intended to hold communication with the whole world, which you do by means of your ships; whilst we Dahomans, being placed on a large continent, and hemmed in amidst a variety of other people, of the same complexion, but speaking different languages, are obliged, by the sharpness of our swords, to defend ourselves from their incursions, and punish the depredations they make on us. Such conduct in them is productive of incessant wars. Your countrymen, therefore, who alledge that we go to war for the purpose of supplying your ships with slaves, are grossly mistaken.

'You think you can work a reformation, as you call it, in the manners of the blacks; but you ought to consider the disproportion between the magnitude of the two countries; and then you would soon be convinced of the difficulties that must be surmounted, to change the system of such a vast country as this. We know you are a brave people, and that you might bring over a great many of the blacks to your opinions, by the points of your bayonets; but to effect this, a great many must be put to death, and numerous cruelties must be committed, which we do not find to have
been

been the practice of the whites : besides, that this would militate against the very principle which is professed by those who wish to bring about a reformation.

‘ In the name of my ancestors and myself I aver, that no Dahoman man ever embarked in war merely for the sake of procuring wherewithal to purchase your commodities. I, who have not been long master of this country, have, without thinking of the market, killed many thousands, and I shall kill many thousands more. When policy or justice requires that men be put to death, neither silk, nor coral, nor brandy, nor cowries, can be accepted as substitutes for the blood that ought to be spilt for example sake. Besides, if white men chuse to remain at home, and no longer visit this country for the same purpose that has usually brought them hither, will black men cease to make war? I answer, by no means. And if there be no ships to receive their captives, what will become of them? I answer for you, they will be put to death. Perhaps you may ask, how will the blacks be furnished with guns and powder? I reply by another question; had we not clubs, and bows, and arrows, before we knew white men? Did you not see me make custom for Weebaigah, the third king of Dahomy? And did you not observe, on the day such ceremony was performing, that I carried a bow in my hand, and a quiver filled with arrows, on my back? These were emblems of the times, when, with such weapons, that brave ancestor fought and conquered all his neighbours. God made war for all the world; and every kingdom, large or small, has practised it more or less, though perhaps in a manner unlike, and upon different principles. Did Weebaigah sell slaves? No; his prisoners were all killed to a man. What else could he have done with them? Was he to let them remain in his country, to cut the throats of his subjects? This would have been wretched policy indeed, which, had it been adopted, the Dahoman name would have long ago been extinguished, instead of becoming, as it is at this day, the terror of surrounding nations. What hurts me most is, that some of your people have maliciously represented us in books, which never die, alledging, that we sell our wives and children, for the sake of procuring a few kegs of brandy. No; we are shamefully belied; and I hope you will contradict, from my mouth, the scandalous stories that have been propagated; and tell posterity that we have been abused. We do, indeed, sell to the white men a part of our prisoners, and we have a right so to do. Are not all prisoners at the disposal of their captors? And are we to blame, if we send delinquents to a far country? I have been told, you do the same. If you want no more slaves from us, why cannot you be ingenuous, and tell the plain truth; saying, that the slaves you have already purchased, are sufficient for the country for which you bought them; or that the artists, who used to make fine things, are all dead, without having

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taught any body to make more? But for a parcel of men with long heads, to sit down in England, and frame laws for us, and pretend to dictate how we are to live, of whom they know nothing, never having been in a black man's country during the whole course of their lives, is to me somewhat extraordinary. No doubt, they must have been biaſſed by the report of ſome one who has had to do with us; who, for want of a due knowledge of the treatment of ſlaves, found that they died on his hands, and that his money was loſt; and ſeeing others thrive by the traffic, he, envious of their good luck, has vilified both black and white traders.

‘ You have ſeen me kill many men at the cuſtoms; and you have often obſerved delinquents at Grigwee, and others of my provinces, tied, and ſent up to me. I kill them; but do I ever inſiſt on being paid for them? Some heads I order to be placed at my door; others to be ſtrewed about the market-place, that people may ſtumble upon them when they little expect ſuch a ſight. This gives a grandeur to my cuſtoms, far beyond the diſplay of fine things which I buy. This makes my enemies fear me, and gives me ſuch a name in the buſh. Beſides, if I ſhould neglect this indiſpenſible duty, would my anceſtors ſuffer me to live? Would they not trouble me day and night, and ſay, that I ſent nobody to ſerve them; that I was only ſolicitous about my own name, and forgetful of my anceſtors? White men are not acquainted with theſe circumſtances; but I now tell you, that you may hear, and know, and inform your countrymen, why cuſtoms are made, and will be made, as long as black men continue to poſſeſs their own country. The few that can be ſpared from this neceſſary celebration, we ſell to the white men. And happy, no doubt, are ſuch, when they find themſelves on the path for Grigwee, to be diſpoſed of to the Europeans. We ſhall ſtill drink water, ſay they to themſelves: white men will not kill us; and we may even avoid puniſhment, by ſerving our new maſters with fidelity.’ P. 217.

This work is illuſtrated by a valuable map, and with ſome plates, which, however, in general, do not throw much light on the ſubjects.

The Sea: a Poem. In Two Books. By John Bidlake, B. A. Chaplain to his Royal Highneſs the Duke of Clarence, and Maſter of the Grammar School, Plymouth. 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Chapman. 1796.

THAT Mr. Bidlake poſſeſſes poetical powers, his former publications have evinced. The preſent may be read with pleaſure by thoſe who are fond of deſcriptive poetry, directed to the inculcation of moral and religious ſentiment, relieved by ſuitable digreſſions, and diverſified (as from the
days

days of Thomson has been the invariable practice) with *tales* allusive to the subject. We cannot, however, flatter the author with having drawn from his theme many new and appropriate images. A storm and a calm, the blessings of commerce, and the misfortunes of a wreck, have often been portrayed; and Mr. Bidlake does not seem to have sought, in a deeper and more scientific acquaintance with his subject, those sources of untouched description, which might give an air of originality to his production. The following specimen, which describes some of the various inhabitants of the deep, and the dangerous employment of catching the sea-birds, will give a favourable idea of our author's talents—

‘ Lovely in death the gay dorado shines :
Him partial nature paints ; with specious pride
Bedrop'd, his glist'ning scales profusely gleam.
And lo ! what timid shoals before him haste !
On treach'rous wings upborn, and safety seek !
But direr foes await : for, as they try
Inhospitable air ! what million flocks
With rav'nous beak their little journey watch !
And say, O man ! is not thy transient life,
Well pictur'd here ? Thy danger-fraught pursuits ?
Now throw the baited hook ! the tyrant's self
Deceive, and drag him from his wat'ry reign.
Now flound'ring see the panting traitor dies.
While o'er his painted sides, what shifting hues,
In rich succession, gaudy glitt'ring play.
Lover of calm, his countless colonies,
The azure mackarel leads to summer shores.
Fond too of change, or in the boisterous flood
The salmon sports ; or seeks his cool retreat,
Mid shadowy woods : o'erleaps the foaming fall ;
And trusts, as if, by sad experience taught
The many ills of more tumultuous life,
His future breed to quiet's safer seat.

‘ More would the muse relate ; the silver smelt,
The sinuous eel, slippery as hollow fraud ;
The side-long crab ; the lobster firmly arm'd
With shining coat of mail, external bones ;
And multitudes, that ill with verse accord.

‘ Dull parasites, for ever fix'd, some pass
A changeless sluggish life ; in gluttonous joys.
And oh ! how like to those, who reason boast,
While gross intemperance chains the aspiring soul !
Anemone, half vegetable, spreads
His hundred arms, the rising tide to greet ;

And

And snatch each fearful insect in his snares.
His throne usurp'd the soldier too enjoys.

' Transparent on the wave Medusa floats,
A gelid mass. Deep in the shifting sand
The razor hides immur'd. The cuttle shrew'd,
Rapine escapes in inky cloud involv'd,
And thick obscurity. Just so the dunce
Wit-vanquish'd in long argument confounds,
By dull unmeaning, and chaotic words.

' How soft the blush that tints the shelly tribe !
How mazy fancy paints their freckled backs !
How beauty shapes their forms ! peculiar grace !
Some spread bivalv'd. In circling cells enroll'd,
The turbinated tribe securely dwell ;
Lone cloister'd tenants of the dreary deep.

' Nor be the feath'ry force forgot. Some made
To ride the wilder surf, and mock the storm ;
Or dive the deep, obtruding foreigners,
The natives of the element who spoil.
See, how they watch the rippling tide !
Secure, above the wave, the meagre snag
Picture of famine stalks, and lifted high.
Some like the stately bark of victory proud,
In naval contest crown'd triumphant ride.
The swan with feet well-webb'd, his dextrous oar,
And self admiring sails in conscious state.
His arched neck, and snowy bosom swells
Light on the emerald wave. His glossy plume
Of golden green, the dappled duck anoints,
With self extracted oil ; and joys to shake
From down his azure wing the cheated stream.
While some more coy distrust our faithless haunts ;
And fly to solitudes, by treachery's steps,
Seldom profan'd. Soft let me steal, unseen,
Upon the bashful people, cloister'd close,
And clatt'ring loud, behind the sedgy shade.

' High on yon tow'ring cliff, and dizzy brow,
Whence fathoms far below, the roaring sea,
By distance hush'd to whispering murmurs sinks,
Scarce heard by him whose vent'rous spirit dares
O'erlook the frightful precipice, what flocks
Darken the panting air ! with restless sweep !
What awe inspires ! Here on the pebbly beach
Oft let me tread, and deeply muse of him,
Who lifts the swelling waves : and can alone
Their madness still. Rough the hoar breakers foam.
Lover of storm. Thrill shrieks the sailing gull.

‘ On distant shores, where never plenty smiles,
And with its sunshine glads, lean hunger dwells.
There the poor native climbs, where danger nods
Upon, the headlong steep; trembling from rock,
To rock, above the nether clouds; or swung
Midway on slender cords, he trusts frail life.
How giddy sight sickens as fearful fancy views
His deep descent. Tremendous trade! that ill
Affords by scanty means, precarious food.
Yet he no better knows. O poverty!
Unheeded e’er by slothful luxury;
And hard, unfeeling pride! They, on their couch,
And idly canopied, in short-liv’d state,
Studiously craving lie: and never dream,
What ills await the humbler lot. How when
The storm beats loud, and they on downy beds,
Invite coy sleep, the drenched mariner
Nods on the mast, rock’d by the piping winds.
How hungry want prepares her scanty food;
And blows into unwilling flame, and loath,
Her few, and joyless sticks, far fetch’d from wood
Forlorn, or tangled hedge. Reflect on these,
Unseemly pomp, and filken affluence!
And bless thy better stars! And bless the pow’r,
That shines on thee, in full, meridian ray!
And ope the lib’ral hand, and scatter large.’ P. 57.

An Account of the Yellow Fever, with a successful Method of Cure: by James Bryce, Surgeon, late of the Buxbridge East Indiaman. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sew’d. Robinsons. 1796.

ON the nature and causes of the yellow fever, there have been different opinions; but no satisfactory conclusion respecting them has yet been arrived at. Nor is the most appropriate method of treating the disease fully agreed upon by those who have given us accounts of its uncommon fatality.

Late writers on the subject are, indeed, more unanimous on this last point, than those that have preceded them. They, in general, suppose that mercurials, in some form or other, are essential to the cure of the complaint. And the experience of Mr. Bryce is in support of the same opinion—

‘ I am induced, says he, by the advice of some very respectable medical friends, to publish the following observations, (in hopes that they may tend, in some measure, to throw light on this subject), concerning a fever of a very formidable aspect, which broke

out on board the *Bushbridge* East Indiaman, during her voyage from England to Madras and Bengal in summer 1792, about the time of crossing the equator in the Atlantic Ocean, although she had been without communication with port or vessel from the time of leaving the Downs. It was my third voyage as surgeon of an Indiaman; and neither in that capacity, nor in the course of my education at Edinburgh or in London, nor while at Bombay, Madras or Bengal, had I ever seen an epidemic of so threatening and malignant a nature. After it broke out, the vessel was prevented by the weather from touching at any port till she arrived at Madras, so that the sick were deprived of the many refreshments which the land might have afforded; and I was left to my own conjectures and judgment concerning the nature and treatment of the disease. I was fortunate enough, however, to be so successful in that treatment, that I lost only three persons out of two hundred and fifty who were attacked by the disease, though it was so general, that not above twelve persons out of the whole number on board entirely escaped it.' p. 6,

The author has presented us with nothing satisfactory, either respecting the source from which the disease originated, or the causes that operated in its production. On these points he appears to have made but few observations.

The history of this fever is traced with sufficient clearness, and in a manner that shows the author to have been attentive to the duties of his office; but it does not appear that the disease which he has described, was *exactly* the same with those mentioned by Dr. Rush and Dr. Chisholm. There are, indeed, some points of resemblance between this disease and those which have been described by the above authors: but in others they evidently differed materially.

In his attempts to remove the disease by clearing the *primæ viæ*, and then throwing in the bark, the author seems to have experienced considerable disappointment. He was therefore soon induced to follow another plan.

'I had soon (says he) the satisfaction to find, that by means of the most drastic purgatives, provided early recourse was had to them, I had acquired complete controul over this cruel distemper, even in its most formidable attacks. I then formed a plan for the regulation of my future practice, on these three general indications.

- '1. To evacuate all putrid offending matters.
- '2. To prevent the re-accumulation of these. And,
- '3. To relieve urgent symptoms.' p. 49.

The doctrine which forbids the use of purgatives in fevers that have a *putrid tendency*, the author considers as by no means

means satisfactorily established: at least, where there is an accumulation of putrid matters in the abdominal viscera, he thinks it the safest and most advantageous mode of cure to exhibit cathartic stimuli, and by their means immediately remove the poison.

‘ In order to accomplish this evacuation of the putrid matters, I found the most active of the purging medicines absolutely necessary; and that which to me, appeared by far the most effectual for the purpose was calomel, either given by itself, or joined with other powerful cathartics.

‘ I am therefore most anxious to recommend a more free use of calomel, than has hitherto been common even in warm climates, being fully convinced that the greatest part, if not all the acute diseases of those regions, proceed, either immediately or remotely, from accumulations of offending matters in the bowels. I have seen so many instances of the good effects of this medicine, in preventing and in curing the fevers of warm climates, without ever witnessing any bad effects from a liberal and judicious use of it, that I do think any error which is likely to arise from its use, must proceed from giving it in too small a quantity.’ P. 51.

That purgatives are necessary, particularly in warm climates, for the purposes which the author has mentioned there cannot be the least doubt. The first has been confirmed by innumerable proofs. But still evacuations may be carried too far, as there is constantly in these fevers a rapid tendency to debility. The judicious practitioner, therefore, while he makes use of evacuating remedies, will not lose sight of that state of the system which must soon take place.

That the cause of the debility in this fever is the accumulation of *putrid matters* in the abdominal viscera, we are in some degree inclined to doubt. We know that collections frequently occur in the intestines, without producing any state similar to that which is met with in fevers of this kind. The author seems to have mistaken an effect for a cause; a circumstance indeed by no means unfrequent among medical writers.

The plan of cure which is here proposed, consists principally in evacuating the contents of the abdominal viscera, by means of large and repeated mercurial purges. This is nearly the method recommended by Dr. Rush and Dr. Chisholm: and it is a circumstance highly favourable to the justness of their opinions, that the same mode has been successfully employed by another practitioner, without (as he tells us) having any knowledge of what those physicians had done.

The facts which Mr. Bryce has here judiciously stated, deserve the attention of those who are engaged in treating the diseases of hot climates.

Traſts upon India; written in the Years, 1779, 1780, and 1788. By Mr. John Sullivan. With ſubſequent Obſervations by him. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Beards. Becket. 1795.

THE manners, customs, police, and literature of India, are, in general, ſo intereſting, and the concerns of our own country ſo much involved in them, as to render every publication on Indian affairs of importance. The preſent obſervations being written by a gentleman well acquainted with the ſubject he treats on, and being in their nature connected with public tranſactions, are rendered ſtill more important.

It may be proper to acquaint the reader, that copies of this work were ſent by the author to the miniſter for India, to Mr. Pitt, to marquis Cornwallis, and others amongſt Mr. Sullivan's private friends, well acquainted with the affairs of India. The author's deſign in ſubmitting his papers to ſuch examination, was, that errors of opinion might be pointed out, or that the whole might be ſuppreſſed, if ſufficient reaſons for ſuch ſuppreſſion ſhould appear. No ſuch reaſons, however, having occurred to Mr. Sullivan, he ſubmits them to the public.

The following introductory remarks we lay before our readers—

‘ The following work conſiſts of letters which were preſented to his majeſty's miniſters, and to the court of directors, in the years 1779, 1780, and 1788, without any intention that they ſhould ever be brought under more general view. But motives of perſonal reſpect and regard for the noble lord lately appointed to the government of India, having induced me to rewiſe thoſe letters, and to collect them together, as forming parts of one general ſubject; I have thought it neceſſary in doing this, to connect them with ſome events that have taken place ſince they were written, and which I conceive will be found to elucidate and confirm the information and opinions that were then ſubmitted for conſideration.

‘ The letter which has the firſt place in this collection, contains, in a reduced form, and with ſome literal alterations, the ſubſtance of three letters that were addreſſed by me to lord North in the autumn of 1780, at which time they were written with the deſign of exciting his lordſhip's attention, as the miniſter of this country, to the political ſituation of the Britiſh intereſts in India. I have now divided that letter, in its abridged ſtate, into two parts, for the purpoſe of connecting with the ſubjects in each, ſuch obſervations and reflections, as have ſuggeſted themſelves to my mind upon a review of them; and I have introduced immediately after them, a memoir which I had the honour of preſenting to Mr. Dundas in March, 1788, to which I have alſo added obſervations. By this arrange-

arrangement I have endeavoured to give some degree of unity to the subject of the papers which I had at different times submitted to his majesty's ministers upon the political state of India, and upon the relation in which we stood connected with the native princes of the Peninsula.' p. i.

The first letter holds out this idea, that our political ideas concerning India should be determined by the particular character of its respective rulers; and that our conduct, in regard to that country, should be regulated by the course of events nearer our own time.

The letter was presented to lord North at an important crisis; and the author observes, that of all the various interests of the nation, there was no one, the various relations and combinations of which have hitherto been so little developed. He designedly avoids touching, on the present occasion, our commerce with India, and the means of improving our revenue there, confining himself entirely to the political branch of his subject; and accordingly takes a general view of our alliances and negotiations and political dissensions in India, and determines this to be the period when the interests of the nation render it necessary to adopt a decided policy in regard to India.

Mr. Sullivan complains of the difficulty not only of completing the regiments, but even of procuring any men for India service; and yet, he says, no where is pay so high nor more regularly paid. He proposes a plan for forming military seminaries, to be composed of the children of our soldiers in India: he allows that this plan is contrary to the genius of our constitution at home,—but observes—

‘ Were our possessions in India constituted, as these islands are, or were they capable of receiving such a constitution, it would be criminal to propose any plan, which should be less favourable to the liberty of the subject; but whilst every profession is considered by the natives of India as an inheritance, not only of the family, but of the cast; whilst the religious prejudices of a whole people are found to oppose the communication of those privileges to any out of their own tribes; it would be impracticable to form establishments in India, upon the enlarged principle which it would be necessary to observe in an institution of the kind at home.

‘ The offspring of our soldiery in India, must therefore, from a necessity which no authority can controul, become soldiers; or they must fall into that depraved and proscribed state, which is distinguished in some parts of India by the denomination of *Pariars*, and in others, by that of *Hallencores*; under which descriptions, they are considered as the polluted outcast of society.

‘ Whether then, my lord, shall we, under some small abridgment

ment of that well constituted liberty, which with so much reason we pride ourselves on in this country, incorporate these children into our army, by some public establishment, which may early direct their habits? or shall we, by an inattention to the common duties of humanity, as well as policy, leave them to augment the armies of our neighbours, and thereby continue to furnish the native powers of India, with means so efficient for bringing their troops nearer to the level of our own in discipline and energy.

‘Your lordship, I am persuaded, will not hesitate to decide in favour of some establishment, which shall secure to the nation the services of this numerous, but hitherto neglected race; and your wisdom will direct, that it should be formed upon a plan the best calculated to serve as a military seminary, in which, from the habits of early exercise, the boys may be inured to discipline, and fitted for the army.’ P. 42.

Mr. Sullivan further proposes a reform in the marine force of India; and suggests a hint that ships of war, destined for the Indian station, should be built in India; and meets objections that might be started to this plan: and further proposes that a corps, under the denomination of Lascar Sepoys, should be charged with the boat-service, and such other duties as might relieve the English sailor. He likewise notices a plan for bringing the military establishment of the crown, and that of the East India company, into one uniform corps. This, he observes, would prevent the inconveniences arising from invidious distinctions between the troops of the crown and those of the company.

Mr. Sullivan proposes, as a reward for military service, a temporary alienation of public revenue; a scheme as judicious in itself, as agreeable to the established usages of the Mogul empire.

After all, the guarded policy necessary to be pursued in these distant dominions, furnishes arguments against this system of our foreign possessions.

The memoir presented to Mr. Dundas was written at his request, for the purpose of conveying a relation of the political situation of the English interests in the south of India; but particularly to point out the danger that might attend a well combined direction of the united forces of Tippoo Sultan and of the French against us in that quarter.

This is followed by observations on the general result of the war against Tippoo Sultan, and the effects that may have been produced by it upon our internal security, and upon our political relation with other powers of India.

Next follows a curious letter to the court of directors of the East India company, dated 3d of Feb. 1779, the substance of which may be collected from what follows—

‘The

' The great political arrangements of India, from their variety and extent, have unavoidably engaged so much of your attention, that the subordinate departments of internal police, which pressed not so immediately upon you, cannot have been enquired into with the same degree of precision. From the same causes it must have happened, that the governments abroad have been obliged, in some instances, to forbid themselves too minute an enquiry, lest the time given to investigation, should have drawn their attention, too much, from the more important concerns committed to their charge.

' Under these circumstances it may be permitted to hope, that every endeavour to convey information will be favourably received by you; and that any attempt to promote the interest of the company, and to increase the confidence and security of the natives of India, living under their protection, will be sure to find advocates in those, who are so particularly entrusted with the management of their affairs.

' In this persuasion, I am encouraged to submit to your consideration, the following observations and reflections upon the subject of the provinces, commonly known by the denomination of the Northern Circars. They are the result of local knowledge, and of some experience in the administration of those valuable provinces; and being derived from minute enquiry and investigation, they are offered with some degree of confidence, to your attention.

' With a view of giving as much perspicuity as may be within my power, to a subject so complicated, and in which such a variety of interests are involved, I will first endeavour to explain the nature of the tenure, under which landed property was held, under the ancient government of the Hindoos; to describe the securities which were provided by their institutions, in favour of industry and cultivation; and to shew the influence which the conquests of the Mohamedans had, upon those tenures and institutions.

' Upon those preliminary grounds I will attempt to trace the introduction and establishment of Zemindars in those provinces; to give a general view of the causes which had raised them to the degree of power and consideration they were found to be possessed of, when they fell under the government of the English; to exhibit their present fallen and impoverished state, with the influence it has had upon the revenue and upon the industry of the country; and, lastly, to suggest and explain such measures as, in my humble opinion, would tend to improve the condition of the landholder and of the husbandman, and at the same time to extend and render secure the income of the state.' P. 156.

The letter further contains some hints on manufactures, and of the measures to be taken to secure the advantages that they may confer.

This letter is followed by observations written fourteen years afterwards, at a time when a permanent settlement of

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the territorial revenue in Bengal had been perfected upon principles analogous to those which Mr. Sullivan submitted to the court of directors of the East India company in 1779, relative to the Northern Circars.

The next letter is also addressed to the court of directors, dated Dec. 14, 1780. This relates to the remittances from India to Europe, which, for some years, were made through the medium of foreigners. Mr. Sullivan reasons against this practice, as it diverts from this country a considerable part of its natural commerce with India, and furnishes rivals with the means of supporting that trade under singular advantages.

In the Supplement, Mr. Sullivan lays down the plan proposed by lord Cornwallis, for new modelling the army in India, as well as the amendments of that plan by the officers of the company, and labours to show that they rather increase existing evils than furnish remedies.

In an Appendix, are subjoined documents drawn from official records, not open to the public. The object of introducing them is principally to enable the reader to judge from such authentic materials, how far the hints submitted to consideration in the tracts of 1779, 1780, and 1788, have been enforced and confirmed by subsequent experience.

Though, in many discussions relative to our concerns in India, many previous questions may be started by the moralist,—though much just animadversion must follow,—and though much perplexity, on account of different interests, laws, and customs, will be involved in them,—yet this volume of letters cannot fail of being acceptable to the public; being not only drawn up by a person well acquainted with facts, but written in a very agreeable style.

An Essay on the Progress of Human Understanding. By J. A. O'Keeffe, M. D. A. M. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Griffiths. 1795.

THE utility and importance of inquiring into the circumstances which promote or impede the progress of human knowledge, must be extremely obvious to every one who has thought at all upon the subject. It must be sufficiently evident, that it is only by inquiries of this kind, that prejudice and error can be fully eradicated, or the general conduct of mankind be enlightened and improved. By accurately marking the different causes which influence the mind in the acquisition or neglect of knowledge, the sources of error may probably be detected, and the avenues that lead to solid information be laid open.

Considering the matter in this point of view, publications of this nature, when conducted with propriety and judgment, may probably be of considerable advantage. Of the utility of the present pamphlet, we cannot, however, speak highly, as it merely contains a sketch or outline of the subject.

The views of the author are developed in the following passage—

‘ The present sketch represents some of the errors, vices, and inhumanity of our predecessors, in order to convince man of his advancement to perfection, and give him some notions of the rapid growth of his understanding. Bigotry, vice, ecclesiastical superstition, and sectical hatred, are severely attacked, because they gave origin to all the cruelties, persecutions, and calamities, under which mankind has groaned for ages, and because real happiness can never be obtained while they exist ! The history of politics points out the glaring errors both of former and present systems, and shews the true and proper source of reform. The method of cultivating our understanding is laid open before our eyes ; and the best books for acquiring an enlightened knowledge of ourselves and the world ; are quoted in their proper places. Two or three letters which I wrote from the university of *Leipsic* to a friend in this city, gave rise to the present publication ; and as philosophy and physiology are the sciences which give us a true knowledge of the mental and corporal faculties of man, I do not think the present subject beyond the limits of my studies,’ P. ii.

The object of the work being thus marked out, the doctor takes a survey of ‘ the different stages of human understanding through the course of moral and practical philosophy.’ His view is, however, much too confined ; though there are some useful remarks.

In concluding this introductory part of the work, he observes, that—

‘ A brief account of the religious, civil and political intrigues, that gave rise to prejudice and formed the principal impediments to the progress of human understanding and social happiness, compose the theme of the following pages, which terminate with a sketch of the literature of new philosophy, especially that of professor *Kant* in *Prussia*.’ P. xvi.

An abuse of the passions, and a false idea of personal interest, are, in the opinion of our author. the two great sources from which the neglect of the exercise of reason, and of the culture of the understanding, originates. The present picture of Europe, he thinks, affords a strong proof of our ‘ great ignorance of the practical basis of pure understanding, and

human happiness.' It shows, says he, 'that while one half of mankind are occupied in protecting the present efforts of long oppressed nature, the other half are exhausting all means to oppose their attempt, and submerge the brightening spirit of the times in those immense clouds of ignorance and darkness, out of which it began to shoot forth.'

The imperfections of the social compact among the different rude tribes of mankind, as retarding the progress of knowledge, and also the original form of social compacts, are just touched upon by our author, but without much novelty of remark. He supposes that mankind, from their supineness and too great confidence, as well as from the neglect of cultivating their own talents, permitted certain of their fellow creatures to be raised to 'the rank of gods and ridiculous idols, the haughty and ungrateful descendants of whom afterwards claimed a property over them.' Time, continues he, 'changed this pretended right into a law of custom; and with its age the rights of the people decayed, until they forgot that he who swayed over them had formerly been the scullion of a neighbour's kitchen, the groom of a foreign stable, or the bloody leader of a barbarous tribe, who, after having slaughtered the one half of their forefathers, had raised his criminal throne on the ruins of the other.'

'The too great confidence, and ill-placed generosity of man, were not perceived by him, till he found all his natural rights in the hands of his fellow citizen, who soon treated him like the beast of the forest, drove him on to the market for public sale, or bound him down with a feudal decree to a piece of land, which he was compelled to till in quality of a slave or serf, for him who was destined to bear arms, and maintain the tyrant's oppression. Deprived of his will, stripped of all his rights, and thus chained down to nourish the mechanical staircase of armed power, which mounts up to that throne, formerly raised by his own indiscretion or temerity, poor helpless man, being no more than a shadow, must now stand and behold this Tarpeian rock, without knowing how to shun or eradicate it: the longer he beholds and the more he considers, the less his expectation of returning to his manhood: hopeless and in despair, he sits down to work for his greedy lord, till the efforts of his toil fill up the treasures, stores and arsenals, which are destined for the pastime of his tyrant, and the instruments of his own destruction.' p. 19.

The influence of superstition in aiding and abetting the inhuman designs of despots, is here treated with no trifling degree of severity: nor is the author less severe on the subject of war, which he thinks has always been the 'last rampart raised against the progress of human understanding.' He

however finds this to have been more particularly the case in those wars which have been 'waged for the sake of religion, and in which men were insured the salvation of their souls for killing their fellow creatures.'

On the subject of 'interweaving Statistics and Politics,' with the moral principles of religion, the author has put some questions, which those who encourage and support such a pernicious practice, will find considerable difficulty in answering.

The science of government, and the views of those who have enjoyed the governing powers, are slightly though not very delicately touched upon; after which the doctor proceeds to the 'History of Politics,' in which he marks the principal changes that have taken place, and the writers who have chiefly contributed to effect them. The examination of this part of his subject is, however, by no means masterly. He has rather glided upon the surface, than searched the matter to the bottom.

The conclusion affords a view of the *Kantian Philosophy*, which the author appears to be anxious to present to the attention of the English philosopher. How far the principles of the *Kantian school* may be preferable to those of other *new schools* which profess to enlighten mankind and assist the progress of human understanding, we cannot from experience at present determine. This, however, may probably soon be ascertained, as the doctor informs us that 'the *Kantian Society of Moral, Practical, and Speculative Philosophy*, will soon commence its classical and elementary debates in this metropolis.'

Rural Walks: in Dialogues. Intended for the Use of Young Persons. By Charlotte Smith. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1795.

'SO numerous and so excellent (says Mrs. Smith) are the books which have been written for the use of children and young persons, within a very few years, that, on the great duties of life, nothing can, perhaps, be added, which is either new, or which can be addressed to them in any new form.

'In this little work, therefore, I have confined myself rather to what are called *les petites morales*. To repress discontent; to inculcate the necessity of submitting cheerfully to such situations as fortune may throw them into; to check that flippancy of remark, so frequently disgusting in girls of twelve or thirteen; and to correct the errors that young people often fall into in conversation, as

well as to give them a taste for the pure pleasures of retirement, and the sublime beauties of nature; has been my intention.

‘ In the very little time that the incessant necessity of writing for the support of my family allows me to bestow on the education of a girl between twelve and thirteen, I have found, notwithstanding the number of excellent books, that something of this kind is still wanting. I wished to unite the interest of the novel with the instruction of the school-book, by throwing the latter into the form of dialogue, mingled with narrative, and by giving some degree of character to the group. To do this, however, I have found it less easy than I imagined. It seems to be the peculiar felicity of the author of *L’Ami des Enfants* to have written stories which are attractive to children, yet not uninteresting to others farther advanced in life. In general, such works must appear insipid to all but those for whom they are immediately designed, and should not therefore be judged of, as they frequently are, by persons who seem not sufficiently to consider that such books were not meant for their entertainment, but for the instruction of the rising generation.

‘ That there are but few poets whose works can be put indiscriminately into the hands of very young people, the extracts which are daily offered for their use must fully evince. Indeed, I know of none but Gray and Collins which are wholly unexceptionable; and sublime as their poetry is, not many of their compositions can be relished by readers but just emerging from childhood.

‘ In closing each of the following short dialogues with some lines of poetry, I have endeavoured to select pieces likely to encourage a taste for simple composition; and if I have indulged the vanity or the fondness of an author, by inserting two or three of my own, I have done so, rather to gratify some young friends, than because I suppose them better than others. A copy of verses in the second volume is the production of a beloved and regretted friend, which I was glad of an opportunity to rescue from the injury they had received, by mutilated copies in manuscript.’ Vol. i. p. iii.

To this account of the plan and object of the work, which is not unworthy the pen of Mrs. Smith, we will only add a short specimen from the conclusion of the eleventh dialogue. The lesson intended to be inculcated, is the propriety of overcoming that timidity too common to young females, and to which they are not aware of the importance of opposing some timely resistance. The dialogue on this subject commences in the following way—

‘ *Mrs. Woodfield*, [*alighting to an alarm the party had experienced*]—And now, since our hearts are at ease, let us sit down, and call ourselves to account for the panic we have been all thrown into.

‘ *Caroline*.

‘ *Caroline.* From which, my dear aunt, you were not more exempt than we were.

‘ *Mrs. Woodfield.* I own I was not; but my apprehensions were infinitely greater, after I knew it was a man with a letter, than while I supposed it to be only a drunken fellow, who, without having any bad design, might have been troublesome, as we had nobody in the house to oblige him to go away.

‘ *Henrietta.* I was sure, almost, that it was one of those frightful gypsy men we met to-day.

‘ *Elizabeth.* And I was persuaded that it was the sailors, that Mary says have frightened a great number of people about the country lately.

‘ *Mrs. Woodfield.* Really you had both lucky imaginations. I shall be angry with the servants, if they tell you these stories of threatened robberies, and I know not what: but it is astonishing what a passion the *people* in every country have for the horrible and the wonderful. I have known a mad dog, a gang of imaginary housebreakers, or two or three stout vagabonds in sailors’ jackets, keep an whole neighbourhood in alarm for six weeks;—some had heard them, some had seen them at a distance, but I never met with persons who pretended to have suffered from these terrific objects. As to mad dogs, that have from time to time alarmed the country, I could never find any other real cause for the panic they have occasioned, than some miserable starved dog, who, become savage through hunger or pain, has fled from his inhospitable home, or has been driven from it by blows or torments, and, taking shelter in some out-house, or under the straw in a farm-yard, is discovered, and hunted from his concealment by the brutal clowns, who drive him away with blows and shouts, and then wonder the miserable animal appears wild and distracted, and snaps at every one who approaches.

‘ As to the marvellous stories of robberies and housebreaking, which sometimes run through a country, I never, on inquiry, could discover above one of them to be founded on fact. At this distance from London, such things very rarely happen; and, alas! my dear children, it is an improvident weakness to exhaust our spirits in contending with imaginary or possible evils, when it is but too probable that the happiest and most prosperous life will give to every one sufficient exercise for their fortitude.

‘ Even this little alarm was a specimen of the necessity of reflection, if we would escape from the miseries of unreal afflictions, which, though they cannot last long, are too acute to be borne even a moment without injury. Without reflecting, Caroline was seized with immediate apprehension for her father; I thought too of him, but I thought still more of my absent boys; so naturally to the mother’s feelings supersede every other feeling.

‘ *Caroline.* And do you not think, aunt, that children love their parents as well as parents their children ?’

‘ *Mrs. Woodfield.* Certainly not. The most tenderly affectionate child does not feel, for the fondest parent, the same degree of affection as that parent has felt for her. This is so ordered by nature, who seems to have made the love of a mother for her children the strongest of all sensations.

‘ *Caroline.* And yet, aunt, I think there are addresses of affection from sons to their mothers, in one or two poets that I could name, which do the highest honour to the filial tenderness of the authors : I do not recollect any in which the parent addresses the child.

‘ *Mrs. Woodfield.* I believe, however, that I can repeat two little pieces of this sort ; one of which you have already seen, though you have, perhaps, forgotten it : it is addressed by a mother to her children, whose future fate, from a long series of calamitous circumstances in their family, seemed to be doubtful, and too probably unfortunate.

‘ S O N N E T.

“ Sighing, I see yon little troop at play,
By sorrow yet unhurt, untouch’d by care,
While free and sportive they enjoy to-day,
Content, and careless of to-morrow’s fare.
Ah ! happy age ! when youth’s unclouded ray
Lights their green path, and prompts their simple mirth,
E’er yet they feel the thorns that, lurking, lay
To wound the wretched pilgrims of the earth.
Bidding them curse the hour that gave them birth,
And threw them on a world so full of pain,
Where prosperous folly treads on patient worth,
And, to deaf pride, misfortune pleads in vain.
Oh ! for their future fate how many fears
Oppress my heart, and fill mine eyes with tears !”

‘ The other piece of poetry was written by a woman of high rank and admirable talents, who, without the same causes for apprehension, contemplated her two sons, eagerly engaged in their infantine sports, with those mingled emotions of delight and anxiety, that a mother only can feel, and, as I have heard, wrote the lines in question with little or no premeditation :

“ Sweet age of blest delusion ! blooming boys,
Ah ! revel long in childhood’s thoughtless joys,
With light and pliant spirits, that can stoop
To follow, sportively, the rolling hoop ;
To watch the sleeping top with gay delight,
Or mark, with raptur’d gaze, the sailing kite ;

Or,

Or, eagerly pursuing pleasure's call,
 Can find it center'd in the bounding ball !
 Alas ! the day will come, when sports like these
 Must lose their magic, and their power to please,
 Too swiftly fled, the rosy hours of youth,
 Shall yield their fairy-charms to mournful truth ;
 Even now, a mother's fond prophetic fear,
 Sees the dark train of human ills appear ;
 Views various fortune for each lovely child,
 Storms for the bold, and anguish for the mild ;
 Beholds already, those expressive eyes
 Beam a sad certainty of future sighs ;
 And dreads each suffering those dear breasts may know,
 In their long passage through a world of woe ;
 Perchance predestin'd, every pang to prove,
 That treacherous friends inflict, or faithless love ;
 For, ah ! how few have found existence sweet
 Where grief is sure, but happiness deceit !" Vol. ii. p. 129.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICAL.

The Use and Abuse of Money ; being an Enquiry into the Causes of the present State of Civil Society. Wherein the Existence of the National Debt is denied and disproved. The Second Edition. To which is prefixed, a Dedication to Members of Parliament ; and a Reply to the Analytical Reviewers. By the Author of Essays on Agriculture. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Scott. 1796.

IN a Dedication to Members of Parliament, in which the author recommends a petition from the people for the dismissal of the minister, peace with the French republic, and the removal of the national debt, he describes the contents of this work in the following words—

‘ The chief subjects of this work are—the distresses of the majority of the nation—the national debt as the cause of these distresses—the author’s proposed means of removing this cause—and the reasons upon which he founds what he says upon these subjects : in which the effects of taxes and creations of new money upon labour are particularly pointed out.’ p. ix.

From his mode of addressing the legislature, we expected a great degree of freedom in the delivery of his sentiments ; and, if he aims not at elegance of diction, he fully compensates for it by his sincerity. The style is too inflated ; yet the truths conveyed are of the utmost importance. One seldom attended to, either by ministers,

flers, or men filling the higher walks of life in large cities, is, that 'industry, the bodily labour of the human being, is the foundation of all property.' That this assertion should be questioned, we need not wonder, on considering by what means very extensive property is in different parts of the world acquired, seized, or exchanged. Shall we allow the next positions of our author? These are his words—

'Two propositions written by nature, and therefore as incontrovertible as any in Euclid, are, first, that whoever does not labour for his own living, let him possess and expend as much money as he may, is for the common necessities of life only a pensioner on the industry of others. Second, That those who do labour for their own living, are originally, and by the laws of nature, the only independent people in the world. Then here we must again ask, how it is that the most idle, are many of them the richest and most independent, whilst the most laborious, are the poorest and most servile? These phænomena, are principally produced by abusing that artificial blessing, money. By letting artifice triumph over, instead of aiding nature.' P. 12.

We allow these positions to be true, and are not afraid of the consequences; but we are not ready to admit with the author, that the abuse of money is the chief thing which gives indolence the preference to industry, or that money can make or unmake the free man, can give energy to a people, or destroy all its exertions.

Money is a symbol only of property; and whether we use metal or paper, there is a certain confidence placed in it by common consent. The moment that confidence is withdrawn, the thing used, whether shells, gold, paper, or copper, shrinks into the value these respective articles have, independently of the former opinion in their favour. By using paper, a great advantage is obtained by society: but no advantage can be gained entirely free from inconvenience. Coin may be forged, so may notes of hand; and deception cannot be entirely guarded against in any institution of society: but whether we inundate the kingdom with gold or paper, the prices of various species of industry will keep their comparative value, which is founded on different principles. In the mean time, from the great advantage of paper money, a new class in society will be formed, of men, whose industry is employed in the negotiating of it; and they will have their reward. There was a time, when merely money-changers could gain a livelihood, and did it to the advantage of their neighbours. That trade is lost among us, but still prevails in some parts of Europe; and we might as well look upon the tables of the money-changers as an abuse, as to stigmatise our banking houses with the reproach, that their money does not originate in industry.

But our author is dreadfully afraid from the abuse, as he thinks
it,

it, of money by the minister. Here, perhaps, he is not very clear in his ideas. The minister is, without doubt, guilty of a dreadful abuse of his trust, if he forges this paper money,—if he pretends that paper drawn in England was really drawn in another place—if he draws bills for which he has no authority. But if the nation sanctions his draughts, we do not see that there is any abuse of money in his drawing a bill, at six, twelve, or twenty months, any more than when the same thing is done by a merchant. His draught represents property, which has a value: and when this money is funded, there is a value for it according to the circumstances of the nation; and the people who lose by it know that when they purchased the note, they purchased it upon very precarious terms. Whether the nation was wise in allowing its servants to have such an extensive credit, is another question, on which we might feel more inclined to acquiesce in our author's sentiments. If the nation runs in debt, the burden must fall upon the laborious part of society; for there are no other persons to pay it: and if their industry or numbers do not increase under the increase of taxes, the nation must gradually sink under its incumbrances.

The consequences of the debt are well stated by the author. By allowing the minister the use of such immense property as is annually trusted in his hands, a degree of influence is created, which must infallibly be paramount, for a considerable time, to any opposition arising either from the most laudable or unworthy motives. We do not term this an abuse of money, but a want of foresight in the nation which puts itself into so dangerous a situation.

Again, we cannot call the debt of the nation mere scraps of paper, though we might have some scruples on the justice of its being contracted, and the propriety of its being ever paid. The persons who subscribe to a loan, subscribe either the produce of their own industry, or that of their fathers; and the ramifications of a loan circulate very widely: but whether a nation can mortgage the property of posterity, is a question which we shall not attempt to determine. We shall now leave our readers to receive the author's propositions in his own words, prefacing that to neither of them can we give unlimited assent—

‘ Perhaps the reader's mind is by this time prepared to receive, as general truths, the two following propositions: first, that the national debt never can be paid. Second, that it never ought to be paid. But these, like most other general truths, are not without exceptions.

‘ How are those little annuitants, who live entirely upon the interest of their capital, which is sunk in the funds (a very proper expression) to be provided for? These ought not to starve. What a villainous system this is! which is so artfully contrived that injustice must be the consequence of either persevering or relinquishing it! But in order to come as near strict justice between the debt-

or and creditor as possible, let every debt whose annuity on the first day of January, 1796, amounted to from fifty to a hundred pounds a year, remain as a debt upon the public, and the interest of it be regularly paid, or else let the capital be paid off. This, except in particular instances, would secure every person dependent upon the funds a comfortable, though not a luxurious living. Let a committee be appointed by government to examine into, and, under their controul, to redress particular cases of hardship. Then set at liberty from its villainous oppressions, labourers, and all those in the lower and middle stages of society, that is, the majority of the nation—I say set all these at liberty from the cruel, vile, and destructive consequences of the national debt, by declaring all the rest of it utterly null and void. And after this is done, let the injuries which have already been the consequence of this debt, of this most shameful and villainous abuse of money, though not forgot, yet let them be forgiven, and the breaches in a friendly and peaceable way made up.—This would redound to the interest and credit, as well as it would be the duty of the sufferers; and these are, both in number and value, the majority of the nation, which, in fact, is the nation itself.' P. 46.

On the Expediency of Altering and Amending the Regulations, recommended by Parliament for reducing the high Price of Corn: and of extending the Bounty on the Importation of Wheat to other Articles of Provision. By the Rev. Henry Gabell. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1796.

To trace to their source the evils which have menaced this country with the approach of famine, and to suggest remedies of a kind the least likely to elude the utility of practice, is of the highest importance to the community, and will not fail to do honour to the philanthropic individual by whom the task is undertaken. The author of this pamphlet well deserves the thanks of his countrymen for the manner in which he has treated so interesting a subject. The engagements that were entered into some months since by many persons of rank and fortune, for the purpose of diminishing the consumption of wheaten flour and bread in their families, are pronounced by Mr. Gabell to be very inefficient to the desired end of enabling the poor to obtain a larger portion of necessary food.

We think that Mr. Gabell's arguments have the merit of truth and ingenuity; and we agree with his remarks in a subsequent passage—

'The extraordinary demand in our markets for potatoes can be supplied only by Ireland, Scotland, Wales, and the northern counties of England; and thus from the Irish, Welch, or Scottish peasantry, from the poor of the poorest districts, you take their chief or only means of life and sustenance, in order to supply the poor of the wealthier provinces with an article, which, to persons in a state

of want, is, comparatively speaking, a luxury; for the money which will purchase a loaf of wheaten bread will purchase a greater quantity of other coarser eatables; whereas the potatoe is the last and cheapest food, beyond which the poor man has no resort.' P. 33.

We acknowledge, with our author, the little probability that any will voluntarily submit to a diminution of their usual quantity of food from motives of patriotism,—and that, besides many general difficulties to the propagation of such self-denial,

‘ There are others peculiar to such masters of families, as may wish to recommend this forbearance to the practice of their domestics; that the latter will be apt to impute his purest intentions to sordid motives of parsimony.’ P. 38.

Our author concludes with earnestly recommending to the government to encourage, by a handsome bounty, the importation, not only of wheat, but of other species of grain and provision.

In the present state of the country with respect to supply, this advice has considerable weight; and we hope that in future a more vigilant and early attention will be paid by the ruling powers to the means of our domestic subsistence.

An Appeal to Popular Opinion, against Kidnapping and Murder; including a Narrative of the late atrocious Proceedings at Yarmouth; with the Statements, Handbills, &c. pro and con. By John Thelwall. 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1796.

This narrative relates to a very disgraceful riot. It appears, that while Mr. Thelwall was giving one of his lectures at Yarmouth, a band of sailors, to the amount of nearly ninety, armed with cutlasses, bludgeons, and other weapons, knocked down the door-keeper, burst into the room, in which were two hundred persons of both sexes, and cut, beat down, and maimed between twenty and thirty of them, some very dangerously. On their entrance, they extinguished the lights, that (as it is expressed by the author) ‘ neither the softness of sex, the feebleness of age, nor the innocence of childhood, might check their ferocity.’ Their principal object was to seize the lecturer, and convey him on board of ship, perhaps to murder him; for it is not uncharitable to surmise as much from men inflamed with liquor, and capable of wounding harmless and defenceless persons. These ruffians, we are told, were set on by an officer of the navy, whose name is mentioned here, and consisted partly of his crew, and partly of the crews of other ships lying off Yarmouth. The lecturer, with some difficulty, was rescued.

Such is the outline of this abominable affair, which is detailed at full length in the pamphlet. If occasionally the writer betrays warmth of temper in his Appeal, it may be excused on such an occasion. We cannot conceive it possible for any man to speak coolly

coolly of a transaction which strikes at the root of all social order and security, and which will be felt the more keenly, as it involves the character of a class of men noted for gallantry and humanity. Never indeed was the name of British sailor more disgraced. If Mr. Thelwall was committing an illegal action, the civil magistrate might and ought to have proceeded against him. But he was not molested by the magistracy; and he was countenanced by some of the principal inhabitants. In the mean while, a party of sailors are so far deluded by their officer, as to break in upon the assembly, and in the most cowardly manner attack the unarmed, the helpless, and the feeble. Every man concerned in this transaction is interested to wipe off so foul a stigma, by promoting the ends of public justice; and, without any partial bias to Mr. Thelwall, but as Englishmen, we are happy to find that the matter is now put into a train of legal investigation, where, for the present, it will be proper to leave it.

A Plan for the Payment of the National Debt, and the Reduction of Taxes Two Millions per Annum. By William Wood. 4to. 3s. 6d. sewed. Seeley. 1796.

For three shillings and sixpence the government of this country may buy thirty-five quarto pages of instruction, by following which, in the course of thirty years, three hundred millions of the debt may be paid off, without any additional burthen on the subject! How inconsiderate a nation then must we be, to mind a little trifling war, which adds a hundred millions to the debt, when it may be so easily paid off!—when not so much is necessary as to go and wash in the river Jordan! for our writer tells us—

‘What was said upon another occasion, may with propriety be repeated here:—“My father! had the prophet bid thee do some great thing, would’st thou not have done it? How much more, when he only bids thee wash and be clean!” P. 7.

Nothing can be easier, except what we shall propose by way of improvement on our author, who recommends that government ‘should issue bills under the sanction and authority of parliament,’ payable at distant periods within the thirty years, when there are funds sufficient for their discharge;’ not to bear interest from government, but ‘to be constituted a lawful tender in all money transactions.’ Now this is tolerably easy: but, if we are to force people to take this paper money, why, instead of redeeming it at the end of thirty years, should we not postpone the redemption to the end of three thousand years? It may equally be made a lawful tender; and the government of a country would stand impeached only of grand instead of petit larceny. Let the author ask himself, how he should choose to have his own debts paid in this manner. —Such trash might have been sold for less than three and sixpence.

The Constitutional Defence of England, Internal and External. By John Cartwright, Esq. 8vo. 3s. Johnson. 1796.

Major Cartwright has been celebrated many years for his indefatigable labours in the cause of public freedom; and though, from his period of life, and the unpromising aspect of national affairs, he may not probably attain the completion of his wishes, he omits no opportunity to recall the attention of the people to a parliamentary reform, as the cure of all our disasters. This is a subject upon which he, as well as others, have written so much, that it were, perhaps, unreasonable to expect any novelty of argument: but the abettors of the present order of things having taken new ground,—that is, having boldly and openly justified the existence, and even the necessity of CONTINUING *abuses*, some fresh scope seems to be given to writers on the other side. Accordingly, our author exchanges fears with his antagonists, and becoming an *alarmist*, expresses well-sounded apprehensions for the constitution, which he sees the minister and borough-mongers are altering piece-meal from limited to absolute monarchy. Taking a view of the present state of representation, he exposes its defects, and points out the consequences which have attended them, particularly in the origin and promotion of the three last wars, and the enormous mass of debt which they have left or are likely to leave behind them. The subjects which more particularly strike him as important in this inquiry, are the interference of peers in elections of persons to serve in parliament,—the total neglect of the complaints and remonstrances of the people,—the prevalence of universal corruption,—and the tyrannical and desperate attempts which have been made to crush the freedom of the press. All these he elucidates by apposite references to facts, and by appeals to experience and common sense.

The chief points insisted on were intended to have been spoken on the nomination of candidates for the county of Lincoln, on the 6th of May last; but the author was prevented by certain circumstances from delivering his opinions in that manner; and reflecting that what he had to say, although strictly applicable to the business of the day, might not be useless, even after the election,—he has since endeavoured to render his speech not unworthy of perusal in print. In our opinion, however, its original form of a speech, such, in point of length, as would have commanded the attention of the freeholders, would have been preferable to the present, which is extended by digressions and repetitions to a size, and consequently a price, which prevent its circulation among those classes, whose attention the author wishes to rouse, and whose opinions he wishes to direct. However natural prolixity may be to an author who writes on his favourite subject, it is not prudent to overlook the most important object, *usefulness*, and to forget that a truth does not become more convincing from being often repeated, although it may be more striking from being placed in a new point of view.

These

These remarks apply to major Cartwright's *Commonwealth in Danger*, as well as to the present publication, and will not, we are assured, be taken amiss by a writer, whose object is to do good,—who has evinced his sincerity in the cause of freedom, by preserving his principles at the expense of his interest,—and who is one of the few that ‘dare be honest in the worst of times.’

An Epitome of the Stocks and Publick Funds, &c. To which is annexed, a copious Equation Table, &c. &c. By T. Fortune.
12mo. 1s. 6d. Boosey. 1796.

A very useful little work—giving a concise account of the stocks and sufficient information for every person concerned in the buying or selling of them. We agree with our author in approving the present mode of transacting this business by brokers, and in discouraging persons from undertaking that office for themselves, unless their acquaintance on the stock exchange is very extensive. We regret, however, that a book of this sort should be of such public utility; and consequently, that a vast number of people must be employed in mere gambling: and we have no doubt that the transferring of so much time, talents, and capital, to stock-jobbing transactions, must be as hurtful to society, as the wasting of the same time, talents, and capital, at the card table. But the *auri sacra fames* swallows up every other consideration; and the honourable character of the merchant is sinking very fast into that of a contemptible gambler.

An Historical Essay on the Ambition and Conquests of France, with some Remarks on the French Revolution, &c. &c. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Debrett. 1796.

This publication can only be considered as a political pamphlet, written for some party purpose: and we cannot approve of its tendency and design, which is to awaken distrust and jealousy, and to inflame the minds of the people of England against the French nation, while our government is negotiating for peace. It must, however, be observed, that, whatever may be the object of the writer, it is impossible that this publication should make any impression on the minds of well-informed persons. The writer, or rather compiler, is so completely ignorant of the recent history of France, that there is scarcely a single topic on which he is correct. He attributes, for instance, the great success of the French arms to the effects of the system of terror; whereas it is well known that their most brilliant achievements were subsequent to the fall of Robespierre. ‘The *new* convention, he observes, begun its reign by irrevocably decreeing the re-union of Belgia and Liege.’ In the first place there is no such thing as a *new* convention; and it was in fact the *old* convention (if he chuses to call the two assemblies by that name) that decreed the *union* of Belgium and Liege, and has inserted those provinces, as integrant parts of France, in the constitutional

tational act; though we apprehend it is a mistake to affirm that the union is *irrevocable*.

Rights and Remedies. Or the Theory and Practice of true Politics. With a View of the tremendous Evils probable to ensue upon the Continuance of the present unnecessary and fruitless War; and a Proposal of immediate Peace. By One of the new Sect of Moralists. Parts I. and II. 8vo. 7s. Sewed. Crosby. 1795.

The author is one of the new sect of moralists, and his faith is given in few words—

‘My divine revelation is, “do as you would be done unto, love, cherish, and assist your fellow men, and shew a tender compassion to all brute animals.” And if this faith (in the profession of which I have developed my inmost soul) will not save me, I’ll———. It is a thing determined upon.’ Part ii. p. 245.

On the slave-trade our new moralist is very properly severe; and we of the old school of morality join most heartily with him in reprobating this infamous traffic. How a man can carry it on, or vindicate it in any shape whatever at the end of the eighteenth century, is to us astonishing; and in our opinion the tyranny of Robespierre is as justifiable as the continuance of the slave trade; or rather the latter is a higher crime in any nation against God and man than the former.

We might proceed to show the moralist of the new school, that many other practices, condemned by him in this work, are not less so by the old moralists, and that true christianity is as much of more the patron of the rights of man, than any system which he can now lay down.

A plain Tale for the new Parliament; or a Sketch of the History of England, from the Close of the Campaign in 1794, to the present Time. By the Author of “Letters to the King under the Signature of Junius.” 8vo. 2s. 6d. Chapman. 1796.

This sketch, though short, is penned with considerable ability. The author advances nothing new, and his chief sources are the parliamentary debates; yet he conducts a train of argument against the measures of the administration and the transactions of the war, in an even and not unskilful manner. The concluding lines may serve as a specimen of the *style*—

‘The protuberances of parliamentary guilt are the chief objects on which the writer now wishes to fix the attention of his fellow subjects. Animated by the warmest zeal for his king, for his country, and for public justice, he would willingly hang up the memory of the late house of commons on the gibbet of eternal infamy: and he thought he could not more effectually accomplish that end than by a fair and forcible report of their own proceedings.’

This, however, is not precisely the language of JUNIUS, whose signature the author has adopted. *Ex quovis ligno, &c.*

Observations on the Mode proposed by the New Arrangement for the Distribution of the Off-reckoning Fund of the several Presidencies in India: together with a new Plan for its Distribution, originally submitted to the Representative Committee of East-India Officers, by Lieutenant-Colonel Richard Scott. Also a recommendatory Address, by Major John Taylor. 4to. 6d. Debrett. 1796.

The policy of the East India company is, to retain in the minds of its servants a predilection for their native country: for if it were removed, it is not likely that India would remain long dependent on the traders of Leadenhall-street. This system, as well as the whole of the system of plunder and rapacity by which a set of merchants, abusing the confidence of the natives, erected themselves into lords of a fertile country, must necessarily be attended with inconveniences. The seniors in the army look for their rewards at home: they come here to enjoy their rank and perquisites; and consequently the juniors have very little prospect of rising, when they arrive at the rank of lieutenant-colonel. To remedy this, a mode is suggested to improve the situation of the latter, which deserves to be investigated by the monopolists of India. But we must say, that, when men leave the service of their country to fight under mercantile banners, they have little reason to complain, if their path to wealth is in a few places retarded by obstacles.

The Correspondence of the Rev. C. Wyvill with the Right Honourable William Pitt. Published by Mr. Wyvill. Part I. 8vo. 2s. Johnson. 1796.

To so strenuous and consistent an advocate for parliamentary reform as Mr. Wyvill, the defection of Mr. Pitt must occasion no little uneasiness, and perhaps some degree of indignation. More from the conversations than from the letters of Mr. Pitt (which are merely notes), we learn, that he was once a zealous friend to a reform in the common house of parliament, and that he co-operated both with the private and public friends of this measure, declaring that he would support it, and exert his whole power and credit as a man and as a minister, honestly and boldly, to carry such a meliorated system of representation, as may place the constitution on a footing of permanent security. It is notorious that he has abandoned those professions, and that the guilt of his apostasy has been aggravated by his countenancing every measure and popular prejudice calculated to bring the consistent friends of reform into disrepute, and even personal danger. The public at large will feel in one manner upon this subject: but to the feelings Mr. Wyvill has in common with them, is no doubt added the more unpleasant sensation which arises from being deceived by those on whom we placed confidence. The greater part, therefore, of this pamphlet, consists of 'the case
of

of Mr. Wyvill respecting Mr. Pitt, and his paper, entitled, Heads of a Bill, or Bills, for amending the Representation.' In this he scrutinises the minister's conduct with great freedom, and in a style of indignation, which, in his circumstances, it would not be easy to repress. As the subject, however, is at rest for the present, we shall only notice that Mr. Wyvill announces a second part, containing the bill or bills proposed for amending the representation, and a letter from Mr. Pitt, inclosing a sketch of a preamble to the bill. These documents will be valuable, when the subject of parliamentary reform comes again to be agitated.

Considerations on the Subject of Poor-Houses and Work-Houses, their pernicious Tendency, and their Obstruction to the proposed Plan for Amendment of the Poor Laws; in a Letter to the Right Hon. W. Pitt, from Sir William Young, Bart. F. R. S. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. 1796.

It gives us pleasure to find men of rank, influence, and talents, engaged on the side of the poor and friendless: and among those who have generously volunteered in this service, no one perhaps deserves more attention than the writer of this letter, who has long directed his thoughts to improve the state of the poor. His motives, we doubt not, are pure; and the views he takes of the subject are such as bespeak a mind replete with enlightened and liberal policy. After complimenting Mr. Pitt on the speech he made last year respecting the state of the poor, and commenting with severity and equal truth on the practice of farming the poor, and establishing 'guiltless gaols,' he examines some acts of parliament for erecting poor-houses; one of which, with his reflections on it, we shall lay before our readers.

It is the Bedford Act, 34 Geo. III. cap. 98. (In the Tewkesbury and others, there is a similar clause)

In this it is enacted, boldly and roundly—

"That all who may be deemed to be in want, whether they apply for relief or not, shall be apprehended and conveyed to the work-house:" and in all it is enacted, "that for the better apprehending and discovery of all such poor, as shall at any time wander, beg, or seek relief, it shall be lawful for such persons as the directors shall appoint, to enter in the day-time into any house or other building, where such poor shall dwell, or be known to lodge or reside, and to examine, search, and see whether any such poor are in want, and ought to be relieved, and him, her, or them so found, apprehend and convey forthwith to the house of industry." You'll observe that this clause sets out on pretence of merely following up the vagrant acts, but quickly by a side wind veers about, extends its purview, and with the disjunctive "Or" proceeds to apprehend and confine, all who may be deemed to be in want, together with all who may have applied for the dispensations of benevolence,

which a particular scarcity may render, as it has done, so general and so necessary in this country. This clause is common to houses of industry, but the hundred houses of Suffolk and Shropshire do not vest in the directors the extraordinary powers of adjudicating and inflicting punishment, given to the guardians of work-houses in general. The hundred-houses are equally objectionable, as places of confinement for all whose means may not be wholly competent to maintain their families; and as putting the worthless and the good, the idle and the industrious on one level; and for many other reasons stated in the course of this letter. But their internal regulations are more humane and consonant to our ancient laws, and thus prove that those violent outrages on the system of British administration of justice are not necessary to work-houses. But for work-houses they are generally enacted, and the whole mass of labourers and artisans, of any district for which the work-house statute is provided, are subjected to this code of despotism. Were the most inquisitive statesman to travel from the Ganges to the Gambia, he could not collect a more complete case of despotism!—The same person, in quality of director, is the party offended—is to judge of the fact—is to decide on the extent of the offence—is to pass the sentence—is to inflict the punishment—corporal or other punishment, without definition, or limitation: and you'll remark, that accusation, trial, sentence, and execution, pass all in secret! Should such laws be permitted to remain in our statute book? Should such powers be vested in any man, or set of men? Let me not be told of character and conduct: the discretion is not belonging to, or fit for a place in, the British system of legislation. I should be ashamed to think it necessary to write one line more on this subject, in the English language.' p. 29.

Sir William's remedy for these evils is, to erect every superstructure on the known basis of the 43d of Elizabeth, the spirit of which tenders means of sustenance to the industrious, and draws a line between them and those who are slothfully and wilfully out of employ; to consider the population of the country as the riches of the state; to regard all manufacture, commerce, and revenue, as originating from, and dependent on the situation and character of our people; to meliorate that situation, in order to elevate that character; to promote the free exertion of industry, by taking off all trammels on those who exert it; to look for the abatement of poor-rates only in the increase of industry, and increase of industry rather from incitement than from correction; to reserve penalty as an exception, and take encouragement as a principle; to revive the sense of infamy on the badge of idleness enacted by the laws of William and Mary, by attaching good fame with recompense to industry in distress.

These propositions we think are fair: at least they are founded on a just and liberal sense of the value of the lower orders to the character

character and well-being of society. Some extracts are given from the writings of Mr. Townshend and Mr. Howlett, to prove the inefficacy of the present system of work-houses to produce the good expected. In various instances, the rates, upon the first opening of the poor-houses, fell to nearly one half, but rapidly rose again to nearly double of what they had been before.

Observations addressed to the Friends of the Constitution, occasioned by the late Address of the Whig Club. By a Freeholder of Hang-West, in the North-Riding of Yorkshire. 8vo. 6d. Rivingtons. 1796.

This freeholder of Hangwest is very hot: but, to use a vulgar phrase, it would be better for him to keep his breath to cool his porridge. He mistakes his talents: he may do well as a loyal and gallant volunteer yeoman; but the sword or the rake becomes his hands better than the pen; and if he thinks that the loyal and gallant corps of volunteer yeomanry, to which he addresses his observations, requires so many italics and capitals, we recommend to him a Sunday school for reading, in addition to that for exercise.

We should say no more upon such a trifling publication, if we had not observed in this, as has been lately much the custom, an insinuation in favour of despotism against democracy. Now, to a true constitutional man, one is just as bad as the other. The constitution of England detests absolute monarchy. The king of England is one of the three estates of the kingdom; and the man who wishes to make him a despot,—that is, to make him independent of the other two estates,—is a traitor to the constitution.

P O E T I C A L.

Extracts from a Poem on the Prospect from Stirling Castle. By David Doug, LL. D. 4to. Randall, Stirling. 1796.

The Extracts now given to the public, the author tells us, are specimens of a descriptive poem, On the Prospect from Stirling Castle, which is nearly finished, and will be put to the press if these detached episodes are well received. They consist of *the Vision*, in which the ghost of Wallace is represented as appearing the night before the battle of Bannockburn to Robert Bruce, and encouraging him to the combat—*Garnet and Orma*, a love tale—*The King's Knot*—*The Garden*, both referring to the traces of parterres and garden ground, still visible from Stirling castle. To these are subjoined two or three religious poems. The talents of the author are certainly above contempt: but we fear the subjects are not sufficiently interesting to attract much attention; especially in their present unfinished state. Nevertheless, as the author, he tells us, is fourscore,

‘ Nor blame the poet’s languid lays,
Pale, blighted flowers of sunless days,
When *four score* winters bleak have spread,
With snowy wreaths his silver’d head,—

he probably thought the completing his poem a matter of much uncertainty. The following lines, taken from the opening of the *Vision*, show Dr. Doig to be no stranger to the poetic language—

‘ Now parting Sol, behind Benlady’s height,
In western waves had plung’d the car of light,
And now from Ochil’s brow, the midnight ray
Sheds o’er the dusky lawn, a glimmering day :
Soldiers, and steeds, and all the noisy train
Are still—no murmur bursts—no tumults reign.’ p. 5.

The Triumph of Innocence; an Ode. Written on the Deliverance of Maria Theresa Charlotte, Princess Royal of France, from the Prison of the Temple. By Eyles Irwin, Esq. M. R. I. A. 4to. 2s. 6d. Nicol. 1796.

The sufferings of the royal family of France offer subjects to the poet equally dignified and pathetic : but it is probably reserved for the next age to do justice to them. The present performance is a very slight one ; and the deliverance of the princess makes but a small part of the Ode which professes to celebrate it. Indeed it could scarcely have swelled into a publication without the addition of a sonnet and large notes.

Revolutions : a Poem. In Two Books. By P. Courtier, Author of Poems, &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. Law. 1796.

The author of this little poem shows himself a friend to liberty and to religion (two tastes which unfortunately do not always go together at present), and an enemy to war. The American and the French revolution, the two greatest events in this or in many preceding ages, are successively noticed ; and the bard ventures to foretell a favourable termination even to the oppressions of Poland. The second book insists upon the fulfilment of prophecy in the present dispensations of Providence, exposes the miseries of war, and dwells with feeling on those moral qualities and domestic virtues, from which alone the state of society can be permanently meliorated. The composition is rather to be approved as a vehicle of sentiment than a model of poetry. It is written in that loose kind of blank verse, which is very apt to languish into prose : and we are more and more convinced that blank verse, if not highly finished as verse, has but little merit ; the facility of it is a temptation to be verbose ; and a poet that is verbose is heavy. The following lines, on the pleasures of home, are among the best—

‘ Yes :

' Yes : in the precincts of domestic life,
 Tho' many a straggling weed o'errun its paths,
 And thorns ungrateful meet the traveller's step,
 There spring such varied sweets as never deck
 Ambition's scorching heath ; there flow such streams
 Of purest nectar, as the ferv'ish thirst
 Of lustful usurpation never tastes.
 Who that has felt—but prizes as he feels,
 The dear connective zone with which esteem
 Links kindred spirits near the social fire,
 Mid winter's else-inclement cheerless reign ?
 Delightful is the lively intercourse
 Of friends, thus met around the blazing hearth !
 Erect on giddy eminence, disdain
 Perchance will overlook such simple charms ;
 Or seeing, deem them far beneath his care :
 Yet these are balms unfading, if aught are
 That scent beneath the skies ; and when abus'd,
 Or, but neglected, breed a thousand ills
 In states and public councils ; whence arise
 Rapine and murder, suicide and war ;
 With wounds of little note, tho' sorely felt,
 Known in the catalogue of minor plagues.
 Our only riches is a little spot,
 Denominated Home : thither directs
 Shoeless extravagance his blister'd feet,
 Drawn by parental love ; and often there,
 Even dissipation lingers better hours
 Than what he meets in levity's parade.
 Home is the temple of serene delight
 In every age, and every circumstance
 That marks this changing scene ; there we behold
 A thousand household gods in various shape ;
 And recognize in each some pleasing trace
 Of youthful mirth, some bright enchanting dream
 Of early life which once substantial shone :
 Thou paradise of time—whose sweets oft sung,
 Seem sung without effect ; soul-soothing Home !
 O may thy rich, yet unambitious mines,
 Attract the eye of all ; there may they seek
 Uncloying happiness ; for there alone
 Dwell pleasures new, exhaustless, and supreme.' P. 39.

Quasby, or the Coal-Black Maid. A Tale. By Captain Thomas Morris. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway. 1796.

The slave-trade, a traffic so disgraceful to this country, has been made a subject of much poetical as well as prose composition :

and, perhaps, some of our readers may be disposed to say, *Ohe ! jam satis est !* We, however, recommend to them, not to conclude too hastily, but to read the following affecting little tale, before they say they will read no more.

The elder captain Morris has before appeared in the cause of humanity, and is known as a poet, having made his poetry subservient to the benevolent views of the literary fund : one of those addresses particularly possessed considerable merit. The present poem, as well in point of tender and generous sentiment, as of correct and elegant versification, is entitled to the notice of the humane, and the praise of men of taste.

The Coal-Black Maid is a beautiful negro girl of Martinico. The scene of the story lies in that island, a place well known to captain Morris ; and of course the scenery and some facts are derived from ocular observation.

‘ Where Martinico’s milk-white cliffs appear,
And two proud hills their heads fantastic rear ; in
Where sever’d rocks are bound with massy chains,
Lest rolling ruin overwhelm the plains ;
Where thro’ the streets a limpid fountain flows,
Cools the hot air, and murmurs as it goes ;
And merchants boast a town, of modern date,
That rivals Paris in her splendid state ;
There Quashy dwelt ; a slave of lowliest kind ;
A state ill suited to her noble mind.’ r. 5.

The French government, it is well known, have abolished slavery as well as nobility, in all their colonies. Quashy’s master had formerly been a noble, but spurned the law that gave freedom to the negroes. The following lines are very pretty—

‘ She next address’d her lewd, inhuman lord ;
For freedom argued, and his grace implor’d :
Mark’d for his prey, he durst her claim deride ;
Of his black haram Quashy was the pride :
Tho’ brutes love brutes, by tender flames inspir’d,
He, worse than brute, could scorn what he desir’d.
She fear’d the ruffian might her spoiler prove ;
And Quashy’s heart had felt the force of love :
The maid had charm’d a youth from Afric’s plains,
Sold, like herself, to wear this tyrant’s chains :
From the same region both the lovers came ;
The same their beauty, and their worth the same :
He, tall and strong, and full of manly grace,
She, blest with softness and the charms of face.
While yet a stripling her a child he knew ;
And with their years the mutual passion grew :
For Quashy Quaco sav’d his little gains ;
He thought on Quashy as he hew’d the canes ;

And,

And, duly as the sabbath eve was come,
 For her the rattle shook, or beat the drum;
 Now with the damsel danc'd within the ring,
 Now fondly by her side would sit and sing;
 Or, far apart, renew'd the tale of love,
 Beneath the citron hedge, or plantain grove.
 They talk'd of Guinea, and their native spot,
 The country's charms, and people's happy lot,
 Where all the negro race on cooscoosh dine,
 And crown their chearful feasts with palm-tree wine;
 But christian robbers poison their delight;
 They deal in man, and urge the chiefs to fight;
 That crowds of captives, in those battles made,
 May live in mis'ry, and support the trade.
 Inhuman miscreants!' P. 11.

Quaco is killed fighting against his master: the manner in which the news of his death affects Quashy, is very feelingly and poetically described. Quashy kills herself, and the poem closes as follows—

' Mild, but resolv'd, and hiding her intent,
 Forth to the woods the beauteous Ethiop went:
 She fell'd the tree, whose qualities ensure
 To wounded minds an everlasting cure;
 Whose vapor oft the wretched negro tries,
 'Till, by its strange effects, he swells and dies.
 Her hut was clos'd, the pile funereal laid;
 A cloud of smoke involv'd the coal-black maid;
 One tear she dropt, on bidding Jone adieu;
 But home and Quaco open'd to her view:
 She yielded to the fate her soul desir'd,
 Call'd on her lover, and in peace expir'd.' P. 26.

It should be observed that negroes, when unhappy, frequently destroy themselves; and that the common way of doing this in Martinico, is by sitting in the steam of a wood, called by the French *bois d'Inde*: they swell and die.

At the bottom of this poem are short notes, explanatory of local customs alluded to in the poem.

The Poetical Monitor: consisting of Pieces Select and Original, for the Improvement of the Young in Virtue and Piety: intended to succeed Dr. Watts' Divine and Moral Songs. Published for the Benefit of the Shakspeare's-Walk Female Charity-School, St. George in the East. 8vo. 2s. Bound. Longman. 1796.

A judicious selection: and as the profits of the sale are dedicated to the benefit of the Shakspeare's-walk female charity-school, we hope that they will be answerable to the benevolent intentions of the compiler.

R E L I G I O U S.

Certain Doctrines teaching Duties and Devotions according to Godliness. In Three Volumes, with a distinct Preface to each, asserting the Dignity of Reason assisted by the Divinity of Revelation. Published by Henry Swindell, of Borrowasall, in Derbyshire. 8vo. Adams, Loughborough. 1796.

In a former Number * we had occasion to notice a series of fugitive publications on religious topics by Mr. Swindell: our remarks on them are, for the most part, applicable to these volumes. The words 'Index est animi vultus' appear beneath the portrait of the author, which fronts the title; but the wicked wag of an engraver has most cruelly defeated his employer's self-complimentary intentions. As the success of the intended implication, however, could not but depend on the varying tastes and opinions of different readers, and might even have tended (as, we confess, would have happened with us) rather to the prejudice than the advantage of our reverend author, he gives us a verbal picture of his sublime mind in the following no less *modest* than elegant terms—

'So lowly he, neat benefice declin'd;
A general friend no slave to human kind
Whilst his poor soul on anchor hope reclin'd.'

Our readers, after this, will no doubt feel a strong relish for the perusal of Mr. Swindell's writings.

Further Considerations on the Second Advent of Christ: shewing that I. It was not to the Destruction of Jerusalem. II. That it is to be to the Establishment of that Kingdom which Daniel foretold the God of Heaven would set up.—Chap. ii. and vii. By the Author of Antichrist in the French Convention, and an Enquiry into the Second Coming of Christ. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1796.

That this is a respectable and well-meant performance, will be obvious to every person who considers it with any attention. But though it should be admitted that Dr. Whitby's opinion and arguments are overthrown, the author's explanations of scripture are frequently too vague to produce conviction—

'Nor is this the only passage in Dr. Whitby so at variance with itself as to require explanation. In his appendix, p. 274, vol. i. on Matthew 24, he asserts, that the destruction of Jerusalem was to be attended by the real presence of Christ (*παρουσία*); yet, in vol. i.

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XVII. p. 111.

page 256, he says, "It is proved that this 30th verse of Matthew 24 cannot relate to his second coming." How are we to understand this? If he came at all, surely it must be his second coming. In verse 2, page 458 and 466, he endeavours to prove, that the Jewish nation is meant by the Man of Sin, or Antichrist; and page 459 was revealed so to be when the Lord did consume her with the breath of his mouth. Here he speaks of Antichrist as past; yet, in his discourse on the Millennium, p. 9, he speaks of Antichrist as to come, for he says, "I believe, that after the fall of Antichrist, there shall be such a glorious state of the church, &c. to continue a thousand years during Satan's binding, &c." And again, page 10, "After the fall of Antichrist, and before the second coming of our Lord to judgment, the Jews shall be converted, and become a famous church again." But if our Lord is to destroy Antichrist by the brightness of his coming, as the doctor acknowledges he is, then of course he must come to do it; and therefore, as the happy state of the church is to be after the fall of Antichrist, so likewise must it be after that coming of our Lord, therefore that coming cannot be to the final judgment and to the end of the world. The only difficulty that occurs to me is in the 34th verse. This generation shall not pass away till all these things shall be done (Luke, fulfilled). Perhaps the word *γενηται* might more properly be rendered, till all these things *shall be doing*, that is, taken in hand to be done; but all difficulty is done away by admitting Stackhouse's definition of a generation to be right, viz. that it means one of the three ages of the world, that is, two thousand years. Nor is Dr. Whitby without his difficulties in establishing the kingdom of Christ at his resurrection. In his note, 1 Cor. 15, page 205, "All power is given me in heaven and in earth," Matt. xxviii. 18. he says, Why this reward should not cease when the work is done; why his dominion over death should not cease when death is destroyed; his power of giving eternal life, or judging when all are judged, and none are left to be crowned, he confesses he does not understand. But are not these strong arguments that his kingdom was not set up at the resurrection? that his work was not done, that death was not destroyed, that all are not yet judged, and that some are still left to be crowned? For when all these things have been done, of which the destruction of death is to be the last, he is to deliver up the kingdom to the Father. He was risen, it is true, and had opened to us the gates of everlasting life, but those gates were not to be entered till a future period. As Samuel tells Saul, 1 Samuel, chap. xv. 28. "The Lord hath this day rent the kingdom of Israel from thee, and given it to a neighbour of thine that is better than thou." Yet it did not take place till some years after.' P. 14.

Three Dialogues on the Amusements of Clergymen. Small 8vo, 3s. 6d. Boards. B. and J. White. 1796.

This work is prefaced in the following manner —

• When Dr. Josiah Frampton's library was sold in London (in the year 1729 or 1730) his divinity books were classed in seven lots; one of which was purchased by Dr. Edwards. The catalogue of this lot mentioned a parcel of MSS. Among these the doctor found one in Dr. Frampton's own hand-writing, of which the following is a copy.' P. 1.

At the end is a note subscribed with the name of Dr. Frampton, purporting that the manuscript contained the substance of what passed between the Dean of St. Paul's and himself, on the subject of clerical amusements.

Whether this work contains or not the substance of an actual conversation between a dean and curate, the subject is very well treated; and not only the clergy but the laity will be edified by the arguments introduced on many topics, on which the gay, the thoughtless, and the dissipated, are not the only persons to disdain a serious thought. Dr. Frampton relates, that, soon after he left college, he became curate of Wroxal in Warwickshire, and thence acquainted with sir Roger Burgoin, at whose house Dr. Stillingfleet, then dean of St. Paul's, was a frequent visitor. During one of these visits the dean was engaged in correcting his *Origines Sacrae*, for a new edition; and the curate was useful to him on this occasion, and more so as a companion to the dean under a fit of the gout which confined him to his chamber. The curate was fond of field sports; and a present of some birds to the dean brought up a conversation on the nature of this amusement, and the propriety of a clergyman's time being taken up with such a diversion. This led to the consideration of amusements in general, which the dean divided under the three heads of riotous and cruel—trifling and seducing—innocent and instructive. Under the first head are classed hunting, shooting, fishing, cock-fighting, horse-racing. Under the second head come cards, the theatres, public dancing assemblies. Under the third, riding, walking, gardening, bowls, conversation, music, drawing, battledore and shuttlecock: and some good remarks are made on the doubtful game of chess, on tennis, fives, and back-gammon.

The dialogue is easy, free, and serious. On some points we may think the dean rather too rigid: but he gives such good reasons for every opinion maintained by him, that an error of this kind may easily be pardoned. It is a satisfaction for every reasonable man to find, that, after the exclusion of most of the fashionable amusements, a sufficient number remain for relaxation and real pleasure: and if every clergyman would reflect within himself, of what great importance it is that he should not give encouragement to scenes of
dissipation,

dissipation; we may hope that the perusal of this book may have the same effect upon him, as the sentiments of the dean had on the future life and conduct of the curate. We safely recommend it; therefore, not only to curates, but to the dignitaries of the church, not only to ecclesiastics, but to the directors of the fashionable world; and we may add, that it is a very useful and proper publication to be put into the hands of young people just entering into life, — if the circumstance of the dialogue being between two clergymen, may not unfortunately prepossess them against their arguments, and lead them to conclude, that what decency forbids to a clergyman, may be indulged without scruple by one of the laity.

Argumentum ad Hominem: a Discourse on the Clerical Character, and its Parochial Obligations: composed under the Idea of a Visitation Sermon. 4to. 1s. Chapman. 1796.

As the influence of modern manners, and of wealth and avarice, is sometimes too visible among, at least, the higher orders of the clergy, an earnest expostulation with them, on the errors of their conduct, can never be unreasonable; and although the author of this discourse gives rather a disadvantageous idea of the bulk of the clergy, we are not certain that he has not a good foundation for many of his assertions. He points out the duties of parochial clergymen in a way that, perhaps, will be considered as methodistical, but is, after all, the only way in which that body can be usefully employed, — in which they can reflect honour on their profession, and derive respect for their characters. Being of an opinion that the neglect of the clerical duty leads to practical infidelity, he observes that, in France, the name only of religion being left among the inhabitants, there was nothing very extraordinary in their legislature renouncing an empty name, in order to shake off the expensive establishment by which that name was supported; and the clergy there, though on ordinary occasions as pliant as want of principle could make them, were not to be expected to value their profession, when the price of hypocrisy was rapidly declining, and there was every indication of its being totally withdrawn. There is good sense, though mixed with severity, in this and other remarks made by this anonymous writer.

The practical Efficacy of the Unitarian Doctrine considered, in a Series of Letters to the Rev. Andrew Fuller, occasioned by his Publication entitled, The Calvinistic and Socinian Systems examined and compared as to their Moral Tendency. By Joshua Toulmin, D. D. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1796.

The truth of a doctrine is evidently independent of the conduct of its professors, or we must condemn the religion of Moses, on account of the flagrant delinquency of the Israelites under their kings, and give up christianity because its professors have not, in
their

their practice, exemplified the doctrines of our Saviour. Again, the practical effect of a doctrine may have been great; yet its opponents may view it through the light of prejudice: thus the virtues of the early Christians were considered by their pagan neighbours as vices. The true test is, What is the doctrine in itself capable of producing? In time, we have no doubt that its effects will be produced, and during its progress to this state of perfection, its effects will be different according to the materials on which it has to work. Thus, our Saviour has taught us on good ground, the seed will produce, some a hundred fold, some sixty fold, some thirty fold. We would not judge the Calvinistic doctrines by the four temper of the murderer of Servetus, nor the Socinian doctrine from the treatment of Davides,—the principles of the English church by the persecution of Emlyn, nor the articles of the Nicene creed by the inquisition in Spain.

Again, the practical effect of any doctrine may be mistaken by observers. Thus the Methodists talk much of certain periods of awakening in various districts. Time must prove whether the preaching was productive of mere flights of enthusiasm, or real sound good fruit.

One mode of discovering the practical effect of a doctrine, is to contemplate it in various countries, on different tempers, and under different circumstances of prosperity and adversity. Thus the Calvinistic doctrine is in power in Scotland, and was so for two ages in Geneva,—has been under oppression very much in France, more moderately so in England and Ireland,—and is now in America on a level with other sects. A curious inquirer might form some judgment of the sect, from its actions in these different circumstances. The unitarian doctrine cannot be examined in this manner, because it is no-where in power,—has very few congregations,—and these have existed too short a time for observation. But, perhaps, this mode of inquiry is not advantageous to morals—Who art thou, O man, that takest upon thyself to judge thy neighbours? Let the wheat and tares grow to the harvest: but be it thy business to sow only wheat.

Christian Philanthropy; a Sermon, preached before the associated Friendly Societies, of the City of Bath, on Monday the 16th Day of May, 1796; by the Rev. Richard Warner, Curate of St. James's Parish. 8vo. 1s. Dilly. 1796.

A discourse recommending the particular duties of friendly societies. The author dwells especially on Christian philanthropy,—a doctrine which ought to occupy largely the attention of public teachers. There never was more occasion than at present to preach a doctrine calculated to heal the breaches and divisions which unhappily have taken place from a difference in political sentiments, and have been zealously fomented by those whose business it was to
remove

remove all such obstructions to national safety and happiness. The author may, therefore, be assured that 'he stands excused for obtruding a particular and occasional discourse on the public notice,' which tends 'to promote and encourage philanthropy, friendship, and good neighbourhood,' on the genuine principles of christianity.

Thoughts on the Lawfulness of War; humbly submitted to the serious Consideration of the Teachers of every Church or Sect among Christians. By a Member of the Establishment. 12mo. 4d. Darton and Harvey. 1796.

For christians to vindicate war on any pretence whatever, except that of self-defence, is so manifestly contrary to the whole tenor of the gospel, that no arguments can possibly have any effect on such wayward disciples of the prince of peace. We must think, therefore, that the persons who are not influenced by the words of our Saviour, will pay little attention to the work before us, which, however, sets forth war in its proper, if not in the most glaring colours, and reprobates, upon christian principles, the conduct of all men who are concerned in this detestable trade.

War inconsistent with the Doctrine and Example of Jesus Christ. In a Letter to a Friend. Recommended to the Perusal of the Professors of Christianity. By I. Scott. 12mo. 4d. Darton and Harvey. 1796.

Mr. Scott's position is—

'That war, in every shape, is incompatible with the nature of christianity; and that no persons professing that religion, and under the full and proper influence of the temper and mind of Christ, can adopt, pursue, or plead for it.' P. 4.

This proposition is very ably maintained; and we recommend the consideration of it to all who profess to preach or teach the christian religion.

Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, Wisdom of Solomon, Ecclesiasticus. With an Introductory Preface. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Longman. 1796.

In a most judicious and well written Preface, the editor has briefly explained the state of Palestine, as to agriculture, commerce, policy, and science, under the reign of king Solomon, the reputed author of the Book of Proverbs. The design of the publication is comprised in the following words—

'It was thought proper to publish these books in this portable form, not only for the purpose of cheapness, but of convenience—as a small compendium of ancient morals, or what would formerly have been termed a manual of ethics; a book that may prove a useful companion through the whole journey of life, adapted to every state and class of society, to be consulted with advantage

of every unemployed moment; particularly proper to be put into the hands of youth; and an acceptable and valuable present from the parents, guardians, and public instructors of the young and uninformed in every rank of civil life.' P. vii.

NOVELS.

Modern Novel Writing, or the Elegant Enthusiast; and interesting Emotions of Arabella Bloomville. A Rhapsodical Romance; interspersed with Poetry. By the Right Hon. Lady Harriet Marlow, 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1796.

To the friends of mirth and satire, this production will afford a delectable entertainment. In flights of wild and digressive humour. Tristram Shandy, compared with the present performance, is a regular and methodical work. Our author seems, by his rambling, unconnected style, to intend a satire on the obscure, desultory, incorrect manner of the inferior modern novelists: neither do those of a higher class wholly escape the shafts of his ridicule: a variety of quotations, both in poetry and prose, many of them from writers of celebrity, are introduced, in circumstances so ludicrous, and attended with combinations so whimsical, as to render them, in their new situations, truly laughable.

The author apologises for these liberties, by declaring that any passages which he may thus have selected and transplanted, were not inserted with a design of depreciating their excellence, but merely to display a happy intricacy of style and sentiment, &c.—and that his sole intention has been, by a mixture of discordant parts, to produce a pleasing regularity, with a lively and captivating variety.

Under an apparently light and sportive manner, some strokes of keen and ingenious satire are levelled, not merely at authors and books, but at men and measures.

The name of Lady Harriet Marlow, in the title-page, is evidently fictitious; and we can venture, little doubting, to ascribe to the pen of a gentleman well known for his poetical compositions, this whimsical performance. We subjoin the following specimen of our author's style and manner—

‘ THE DANGERS OF A MASQUERADE.

‘ The ladies were all in high preparation for the ensuing masquerade, Mrs. Maltrever who had visited in her early days the coast of Malabar, fixed upon the dress of a peasant of the Alps, as most suitable to her situation in life. Lucinda chose to assume the character of queen Elizabeth, Margaret Grimes was disguised as cardinal Wolfey, and the celestial Arabella, like a simple dairy-maid, in white fatten, with a little black feather, perking over her left ear,

‘ Appear'd like an angel, new drop'd from the skies.’

General

General Barton went as an old cloaths man, fir Sydney Walker as a pair of nutcrackers, and captain Harland as a blacksmith. When they arrived at the theatre in the Haymarket, the gayety of the lights, the proportions of that elegant building, and the splendour of the surrounding company delighted them beyond measure. Arabella felt an unusual flow of spirits, and Lucinda whispered a blue domino with particular emotion. The devil now seized Arabella by the hand, and standing upon his head drank up a whole bottle of champagne without flinching. This occasioned great merriment on both sides, and fir Sydney being quite intoxicated, added a fresh stimulus to her vivacity. Sterne's melancholy Maria, dressed in straw, now advanced with a crowd of admirers in her train; then tossing her head at sight of Arabella she said, 'well to be sure, I dare to say this *here creter* thinks herself the *biggest* beauty in the place.' Arabella no sooner heard this rude attack of the lovely maniac, than she swooned away, which threw three gentlemen into fits, and shattered the great lustre that was suspended from the dome. This was indeed a chance, but the pathetic Maria paid little attention to the alarming confusion she had occasioned. On the contrary, she took her guitar and sung the following mournful elegy with such invincible pathos, that lord Mahogany himself, who was there in the character of a mile-stone, burst into tears :

‘ ELEGY.

- ‘ Where slow meand’ring thro’ the verdant plain,
Yon rill with murm’ring melancholy flows,
Contiguous to the spot where, hapless swain !
Young William’s straw-clad cottage once arose.
- ‘ Lost in incomprehensibility
Of those dire pangs which rent his tortured breast,
When on his death-bed laid with many a sigh,
His soul departed, leaving me unblest.
- ‘ I gaily hasten’d to the well-known spot,
Where I had oft partaken curds and tart,
Untir’d by repetition, ’twas my lot,
To share the dainties of his dairy’s art.
- ‘ The slipp’ry butter which in daily course,
Was by his pretty sister Mary made,
Ah happy days, but now distress, remorse,
In sad perfection my torn thoughts invade.
- ‘ For gone alas ! are this once blissful pair,
And anguish only now remains for me ;
He left a monkey, that my griefs shall share,
And mourn the season I no more shall see.

This beautiful effusion was received with unbounded plaudits, when Mrs. Maltrever screamed out ‘ O heavens ! she’s gone, she’s

gone,' at which a sailor exclaim'd 'yes, damme she's off.' This occasioned a violent burst of laughter, while Mrs. Maltrever and Lucinda fell into the orchestra, and unfortunately broke signor Corvino's capital violoncello.' Vol. i. p. 217.

Augusta Fitzherbert; or, Anecdotes of real Characters. In a Series of Letters. By the Author of the Castle of Mowbray, St. Bernard's Priory, &c. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. sewed. Crosby. 1796.

There are a few stories in possession of the circulating libraries, which, with some small and not very tasteful variations, are played off by the whole band of their mercenaries. Each new novel resembles the cutting of a polypus: the vegetating animal gets itself a new head and tail, and crawls on, *alter et idem*. The unfortunate are frequently advised to look below them; and it may be some consolation to the author of the Castle of Mowbray, St. Bernard's Priory, &c. to be informed, that we have been obliged to read worse novels than even Augusta Fitzherbert, or Anecdotes of real Characters.

Louis de Boncœur. A Domestic Tale. By Catherine Lara. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. sewed. Ridgway. 1796.

The present production (which, we are informed, is a translation from the French, with alterations and additions) by no means justifies the writer in the air of assumption with which she descants, in her Preface, on novels and novel-writers. 'Common sense and reason,' are not more set at defiance by the introduction of 'supernatural agency, or fantastic tales of castles, ghosts, and skeletons,' than by the overstrained affectation of sentiment and feeling, which characterises this performance. 'The characters exhibited (we are told by the translator) are constantly to be met with in society, influenced by those passions, and possessing those qualities, that belong to human nature—the events being natural, and such as it is hoped will excite and sustain an interest throughout the perusal.'—We know not how common it might have been, under the former government in France, to meet with sons who forswore all civil employment and social connections, lest they should separate them from 'the felicity which they enjoyed in the society of an idolized father,' and who were constantly testifying their filial love and duty, by weeping, sobbing, and embracing, with more than feminine weakness:—but, in an English reader, such descriptions are little calculated to excite sympathy. The language of genuine sensibility and affection is very distinct from this extravagance, which may produce affectation or provoke disgust, but will never touch the heart.

Durval and Adelaide. A Novel. By Catherine Lara. 12mo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Ridgway. 1796.

Another translation from the French by the same author:—the style and sentimentse qually inflated:—but the extravagance and enthusiasm

thusiasm of love is, perhaps, more natural, and therefore more probable, than that of filial duty: the latter is a sober feeling, and, however sincere and tender, very distinct from the flights and excesses of passion. The *virtue* of suicide, in any case, ought never to be recommended. French sentiment (at least, those high-wrought notions of fantastic honour and loyalty, which were inculcated under the old feudal system of government) is too fanatical and too artificial for plain English common sense.

Maria; or, the Vicarage. A Novel. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. sewed.
Hookham and Carpenter. 1796.

These little volumes appear to have been the production of a young, amiable, uncorrupted mind; and we give the writer credit for laudable intention:—but, to borrow his own metaphor from the Preface, the performance bears no unapt resemblance to ‘a level plat of green,’ in which there is nothing either to offend or to arrest the eye. The style would have been better had it been less labour-ed; *measured prose* disgusts the ear by its mellifluous, monotonous uniformity: and descriptions of inanimate nature (in which this novel abounds), unconnected with passion or sentiment, must always be tiresome and uninteresting.—Nevertheless, this performance is not ill calculated to please young readers, though scarcely fitted to abide the ordeal of criticism: and, should our conjectures be right respecting the youth of the author, we would not discourage him in his literary career.—There may be time, as well as room, for future improvement.

MEDICAL AND ANATOMICAL.

Dialogues between a Pupil of the late John Hunter, and Jesse Foot, including Passages in Darwin's Zoonomia. 8vo. 3s. Becket.
1795.

All former attempts to vilify the reputation of Mr. J. Hunter having failed, our author now attempts the form of dialogue, a mode of writing (it may be observed with truth) more calculated to influence the passions than fix the judgment.

The Dedication is pompously addressed to the ‘memory of Dr. Adair Crawford.’ The Preface is principally occupied by a variety of attempts at criticism on the composition of dialogues; and Dr. Hurd is honoured with the palm of superiority in this species of literature,—nay even is made the model for the work before us.

Enter Mr. Foot and Pupil.

‘*Pupil.* You will pardon the freedom which I have taken of interrupting your attention, but my zeal for enquiry after truth has led me to solicit a conversation with you.

‘*Foot.* May I beg to know to whom I am indebted for the honour of this visit?

‘*Pupil.* I was a pupil of the late John Hunter, and as I admire
K k 2 candour

candour too much to imagine, that I shall be the worse received by you, I shall not hesitate in announcing, that the doctrines which I imbibed from my late preceptor, have been strongly impressed upon my mind, although I trust, they have not warped my judgment.' P. I.

Thus begins the conversation between Foot and Foot:—having the misfortune not to have roused the interest or indignation of one solitary medical antagonist, he now starts a controversy with himself.

The subjects of these dialogues are the old stories abridged, of the disputes between Mr. Foot and himself, concerning Mr. Hunter's doctrines and practice, in all of which the disputant Foot is of course the victor.

The author presumes to direct the disposition of Mr. Hunter's collection, and to estimate its utility and its value, without having ever seen it!!—Dr. Darwin is also brought under his displeasure; and we feel some difficulty in restraining our laughter at the insolence and folly of such criticism.

A new and compendious Treatise of Anatomy, and Proportions of the Human Figure, adapted to the Arts of Designing, Painting, and Sculpture, illustrated with Copper-plates. Designed principally for the Information of such Ladies as practise the above Arts; and absolutely necessary to all Students, who wish to acquire Correctness in the Outline of the Human Figure. By W. F. Wells. 4to. 5s. sewed. Hookham and Carpenter. 1796.

Our great-grandmothers would have laid down their spectacles, and been struck dumb with astonishment, at the title-page of this treatise: but the prolific licences of modern times create an incalculable variety of new manners. The arts of designing, painting, and sculpture, are become fashionable points of education among ladies; and the work before us is addressed especially to them.—‘To the student who wishes to acquire correctness in the outline of the human figure,’ the author states this treatise to be ‘absolutely necessary.’—We differ from him in appreciating the use and necessity of anatomical knowledge, for the persons to whom he thinks it so absolutely necessary. We believe (and not without some knowledge for the foundation of our belief) that an acquaintance with anatomy assists the draughtsman only in one way, and that is by directing his attention more closely and more correctly to all the several parts of a figure, and their various changes or states. In this respect, the attention of the mind being more comprehensively fixed, and the senses more perfectly applied, a better view of an object may be obtained, than would be otherwise formed. The common supposition, that the knowledge of anatomy teaches the painter to carry in his mind all the alterations of form which the different parts of the body undergo from the actions of muscles, is by no means

means true. The most accurate anatomist, who is in the daily habit of demonstrating the structure of the human body, cannot exert such a power, much less the smatterer; and we believe that all the most accurate draughtsmen trust only to representations of real nature placed before them. Anatomy is, however, a useful study to the artist, in as far as it enlarges his conceptions of the nature of those changes exhibited in the human body during motion, and thereby directs his eye more attentively to their various representations.

The treatise is a neat quarto, consisting of nineteen pages, and six plates of outlines, with shaded figures of skeletons and superficial muscles, done in imitation of chalk drawings. There are two of these plates containing the proportions of the face, head, and human figure generally. The execution of the whole work is modernly neat, but not very accurate.

MISCELLANEOUS.

A Triplet of Inventions, consisting of a Description of a Nocturnal or Diurnal Telegraph; a Proposal for an Universal Character; and a Scheme for facilitating the Progress of Science, exemplified in the Osteological Part of Anatomy. By Thomas Northmore, Esq. M. A. F. S. A. 8vo. 1s. Owen. 1796.

This little sketch proceeds from the pen of a gentleman well known in the literary world, who, in his dedication to a friend, very justly observes, that the gems of many useful inventions lie dormant in the old Greek scholia, and that the presenting of them to the public in a modern dress would be a work of considerable utility. To perform this task, we know of no person so well calculated, both by abilities, fortune, and leisure, as our author: and we persuade ourselves that, in his retirement in the country, he will execute it with great satisfaction to himself and advantage to the public, without encroaching too much upon the time allotted to the duties of a magistrate, or kind offices to his neighbours. In the publication before us, is an account of a useful mode of disposing four lamps to represent every character in the alphabet; by which, information may be given in a clear night as well as by day: but the writer is not perhaps aware that his invention would disturb the rest of the lords of the admiralty; and that the reason given for not adopting nocturnal signals, is their supposed inutility, from their lordships not being in the habit of holding their boards at night. The servants of the public ought, indeed, to be ready by night as well as by day; and nocturnal signals may at times be as much wanted as diurnal; but this frivolous objection will, we fear, be too much for any powers of reasoning. Proposals for a universal character have been often made; and the investigation leads to a better acquaintance with the principles of language: but the difficulty of remembering mere numbers, to be substituted as marks for our ideas,

ideas, appears to us an insurmountable objection to the plan before us. On the proposal to facilitate the progress of science, by adopting plain English words instead of fantastical Greek or Latin ones, we agree entirely with our author. *Forehead bone* sounds as well in conversation as *os frontis*, *cheek bones* as *ossa malarum*, *grinders* as *molars*, *hip bones* as *ossa innominata*; and, besides the advantage gained by making conversation intelligible to a whole company, we shall be saved the mortification of hearing the Latin and Greek languages tortured by an half-educated surgeon or physician.

The Ghost, by Felix Phantom. Part First. 25 Numbers, 2d. each. Small Folio. Mudie, Edinburgh. 1796.

Although it is not our usual practice to notice periodical works before they are completed,—yet as the authors of the *Ghost* have taken the trouble to send us this copy, we shall tell them frankly, that, upon the whole of the evidence before us, we are not disposed to think highly of the undertaking. Most of the papers are of a very flimsy texture,—the wit very thinly scattered, and the sentiments trite and common. They may, however, improve in their progress, and would certainly be better adapted to general use, if the authors avoided allusions to living characters, and petty disputes with rivals or enemies, which are of no consequence to the public, and not even a source of amusement. The criticism on the tragedy of *Douglas* is one of the best articles; and it has the merit of being original in its design. Until very lately, any reflections upon that play would have been a dangerous heresy in the metropolis of Scotland.

The Art of growing Rich. 8vo. 1s. Evans. 1796.

Who would not grow rich? and who is there so careful of his money as not to lay out a shilling for a book which teaches him the way to wealth? The writer glances at the dirty roads, such as those of lawyers pleading for a bad cause, members of the legislature voting for bribes, physicians duping their patients, divines subscribing articles which they do not believe,—and then exhorts his readers to prefer the clean ones of frugality and industry, and to keep the straight path, when the post points on the right and left to avarice and prodigality. The character of *Firmin*, well acquainted with the art recommended by the writer, concludes the work, which we hope will go some way towards enriching the author, who is probably better acquainted with the theory than the practice of his art.

C O R R E S P O N D E N C E.

Trinity College, Dublin, 20th September, 1796.

GENTLEMEN,

ON my return hither from the country this day, I received your Review for last month, and hope you will excuse the liberty I take in pointing out a few misquor-

misquotations in your criticism on my Essay on the Biblical Hebrew, which, I am persuaded, have arisen from inadvertency, and which, I trust, you will be good enough to acknowledge in your next number.

In page 418 you ask, 'How **א** is like an ox? or if like an ox, like a *captain* or *leader*? but surely I did not say it had such a resemblance; my words are (p. 82) '**א** *aleph* signifies an ox, to the head and horns of which it has some similitude: and as it also signifies a *captain* or *leader*, it is aptly placed at the head of the alphabet.'

You proceed and ask, 'But admitting these resemblances to be ever so perfect, what affinity can there be between the figure and the sound?' certainly I did not say there was an affinity, but that the letters have a resemblance to the *things* signified by the names; and added, that, 'If the resemblance in the partial representation of animals, for instance, had been more striking, it would probably be too picturesque for *use*, and too hieroglyphical for the *law*, which forbade all such images, or likenesses of things, as might lead to idolatry (p. 92).' What is there in this so *chimerical* as what you yourselves have said of the *alph* of the Phœnicians?

Permit me to advert to a few other passages, and first, to the 'skip, as you are pleased to call it, (p. 418) from hieroglyphics to elementary sounds, which you say I regard as so easy.' Here you seem to me to allude to my quotation from Doctor Warburton (p. 84): but, if you will please to look into page 82, you will find I have taken notice of a gradation in the different species of *hieroglyphic similitudes*, previous to the invention of letters.

In discussing the claims of different nations, you say, (p. 437) 'the Egyptians are supposed by me to have obtained the knowledge of letters from the trade they carried on with Tyre and Sidon, it being evident from the bible history that the Egyptians were possessed of letters before either of these cities were founded.' Whether they were or not, I have not taken upon me to determine; I have only remarked *hypothetically* (p. 77) that, 'if we attend to commercial considerations, the Phœnicians will appear to have the best claim, as they were the first and greatest commercial nation of antiquity; it is therefore probable they communicated letters to the Egyptians and other nations, who traded to the celebrated ports of Tyre and Sidon.'

You have also said, with respect to the origin of letters, that, 'I consider them as coeval with Adam,' whereas I have only cited *this* as the opinion of Walton and other learned writers (p. 80), without venturing to assign myself any precise date or æra of their origin; but having noticed the opinion of Plato and Tully, with respect to their divine original (in which I am glad to find you concur), I have said, that, 'if any alphabet now existing could pretend to such an original, the Hebrew will appear to have the best title to it;' and I have given my reasons, p. 84, &c.

These few remarks I thought it necessary in my own justification to send you. With respect to 'your difficulties or exceptions,' on a few other points, I shall not trouble you with any—especially as you have politely assured me, that you 'have been influenced by no motive but concern for the truth;' to this I readily assent, and consider myself much obliged by the flattering manner in which you have expressed yourselves on many parts of my publication.

I have the honour to be,

Gentlemen,

Your most obedient servant,

GERALD FITZGERALD.

Whether inadvertency be chargeable on ourselves or the doctor, we leave our readers to determine; but had Dr. Fitzgerald written his letter in less haste, we think misquotations would not have been imputed to us, where we had not quoted at all.

In the first instance, our questions proceeded from the doctrine in p. 84, 'that the Hebrew alphabet had the best title to a divine origin, from the beautiful structure of its letters, each denoting some figure to which it bears an analogy or resemblance: whence they may be defined *contracted delineations of the objects which they signify*.' Surely, here was ground sufficient for the questions, 'How is **א** like an ox? or, if like an ox, like a *captain* or *leader*?' Should the doctor answer, that the similitude to the ox consists in a partial resemblance
of

of figure, and to the captain or leader in *analogy of place*,—it is obvious to reply, that though the former signification correspond to the definition (part being put for the whole), the latter is not only void of all such resemblance, but, in this secondary sense, of all claim to a divine origin, from the beauty of its structure; since, as the first letter of the Hebrew alphabet, its pretensions are no better than the first letter of any other: nor, perhaps, equal to the Christ-cross at the head of the horn-book.

The propriety of our asking, in the next instance, what affinity can there be, between the figure of a letter, and the sound? is pertinent, we think, to the doctor's admission 'that the elementary sounds of letters were prior to their forms;' which if so, the divine origin of letters should have been deduced from the significance of sound of each (as a בֵּת קוֹל), rather than from a likeness destitute of resemblance. For, that such is the likeness the doctor insists on, is evident from what follows:—"if the resemblance in this partial representation of animals had been more striking, it would, probably, be too picturesque for use, and too hieroglyphical for the law, which forbade all such images or likenesses of things as might lead to idolatry," p. 92. Hence then the execration in *Tom Thumb*—

'Curs'd be the man that first a simile made,
And liken'd things that are not like at all'—

should, in future, be reversed.

But Dr. Fitzgerald asks: 'What is there in this so *chimerical*, as what you yourselves have said of the aleph of the Phœnicians?' With *chimeras* we have no concern. Whoever will look at fig. 2. pl. 49. tom. i. of *Monumens Egyptiens*, may there see the Phœnician aleph so represented, as fully to justify all we have said of its figure; and as to its name, we think Dr. Fitzgerald can have nothing to object to its derivation from אֵל copulavit; whence אֵלֶּה signifies a conjunction of correspondent organs.

In respect to the skip from hieroglyphics to elementary sounds, we are referred to the gradation of hieroglyphic similitudes in p. 92. It was what there occurred that suggested our remark. However easy the transition may be from a more to a less complex species of picture-writing, which either delineates or symbolises objects; between such and the representation by forms of single elementary sounds, there is not, that we can perceive, the slightest trace of gradation; but the transition is a skip that we cannot follow.

In saying that Dr. Fitzgerald *supposed* the Egyptians to have obtained the knowledge of letters from the trade they carried on with Tyre and Sidon, we thought, and still think, ourselves fully warranted. The doctor observes—"I only remarked;" and he now adds, '*hypothetically*,' that 'if we attend to commercial considerations,' the Phœnicians will appear to have the best claim: as they were the first and greatest commercial nation of antiquity, it is therefore probable that they communicated letters to the Egyptians and other nations who traded to the celebrated ports of Tyre and Sidon.' Now, if this be not, in the judgment of every one, the doctor excepted, enough to justify our expression, we sincerely crave his pardon; but we could not suppose that the doctor would have alleged commercial considerations as the ground of an argument that involved a conclusion in opposition to fact.

Dr. Fitzgerald further reprehends us for having charged him with considering the origin of letters as coeval with Adam, 'whereas (he adds) I have only cited *this* as the opinion of Walton and other learned writers (p. 80), without venturing to assign myself any precise date or æra of their origin.' If, however, we have done this upon insufficient ground, the doctor himself shall decide; for, after an elaborate citation of authorities from Walton and others, to prove the point in question, he subjoins—"what these old characters were, (viz. that Seth learned from Adam, &c.) is a question that may best be determined by recurring to the first formation of elementary characters in general, and of the *Hebrew alphabet* in particular.' From this, and more that follows, we held ourselves justified in supposing the doctor in agreement with the authors he had cited; and though we be censured by him for having drawn this inference, it is obvious from his letter that he has not renounced it.

Taking our leave of Dr. Fitzgerald, we solemnly assure him, that we should have been glad, if, consistently with our duty, we could have spoken of his book with unreserved commendation.

A P P E N D I X

TO THE

EIGHTEENTH VOLUME

OF THE

NEW ARRANGEMENT

OF THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

*Doctrina Numorum Veterum conscripta a Josepho Eckhel The-
sauro Cæsareo Numorum, Gemmarumque Veterum, et Rei
Antiquariæ in Universitate Vindobonensi docendæ præfesto.
Pars. I. de Numis Urbium, Populorum, Regum. Volumen
II. continens reliquas Europæ Regiones cum Parte Asiæ Mi-
noris. 4to. Vindobonæ. 1794. Imported by Edwards.*

THE particular account which was submitted to our readers in a former Appendix, of the first volume of this elaborate work, has, we doubt not, excited, in those who are studious of antiquity, a desire to see it continued. Referring, therefore, to p. 497 of the VIIIth volume of our New Arrangement, for the outline of abbé Eckhel's plan, prolegomena, and retrospect, on the coins of Spain, Gaul, Britain, Germany, and Italy, with its islands,—we here resume our course, and, as the countries subjoined are the objects of his research, point out in our progress those views that principally catch our attention; premising, however, that though they may suggest some casual notions of the work, these must be such as will be very inadequate to its merits.

The countries in order are: Chersonesus Taurica—Sarmatia Europæa—Dacia—Mœsia superior—Mœsia inferior—Thracia—Chersonesus Thracia—Pæonia—Macedonia—Thes-
salia—Liburnia—Dalmatia—Illyricum—Epirus—Corcyra
inf.—Acarnania—Ætolia—Locris—Phocis—Bœotia—Attica
—Peloponnesus—Achaia—Elis—Cephallenia inf.—Messenia
—Laconia—Argolis—Arcadia—Creta inf.—Eubœa inf.—In-

sulae Aegæi minores Europææ—Bosporus Cimmerius—Pontus—Paphlagonia—Bithynia—Myfia—Troas—Æolis—Lesbus inf.—Ionia—Caria.

Of each region a geographical summary is given, and the departments or cities signalised in it, enumerated, with their respective coins, according to alphabetical order, and their proper discriminations. Thus, after noticing those of *Heraclæa Chersonesus*, the medalist is cautioned against confounding these with those of *Chersonesus Gætica*; a distinction first made by M. Pellerin. Under *Alum*, in Mœsia Superior, a coin, in the museum of Hunter, with AAMONI, which Dr. Combe refers thither, abbé Eckhel hesitates to admit; that country not having been inhabited by Greeks, and the device of a ship, as well as the fabric of the coin, better corresponding with some one of the Archipelagan islands. *Viminacium* has a long investigation to settle its epocha, and that of *Dacia* inscribed on its coins. An inscription on those of *Marcianopolis* and *Nicopolis* gives occasion to expatiate on the office of ἡγεμων, though not to the extent we had hoped; for the precise significations of ἡγεμων and ἡγεμονεύω in the gospel of Luke have not been as yet ascertained. Respecting the coins of Abdera, a distinction marked by abbé Neumann is adopted; viz. that those which exhibit a gryphon looking westward, are *Teian*, but eastward, of *Abdera*. To this, however, we cannot but except; for fig. viii. and ix. t. i. of Hunter, evince the distinction to be unfounded, as the gryphons, on those coins of Abdera, look both ways. A decisive observation is made to ascertain the coins of *Trajanopolis* in *Thrace*, from those of the city in *Phrygia* so called; the magistrates on the former being stiled ἡγεμονες, and on the latter ἀρχοὺς. Many important remarks occur on the kings of *Macedonia*, and a disquisition on the *Philippi* referred to by Horace:

Gratus Alexandro regi magno fuit ille

Chœrilus, incultis qui versibus et male natis

Rettulit acceptos, regale numisma, PHILIPPOS.

In treating, nevertheless, of the coins of Alexander, though the learned abbé has again gone over the numerous class with the head of Hercules on one side and the Zeus Nicephorus on the other, the main points of the subject are still left in darkness. Nor can we think him more fortunate as to the coins with these devices ascribed to ACE, in which, though he professes to follow Barthelémy and Pellerin, he expresses the latter Phœnician character differently, they making it a *Caph* 7, and he a *Koph* p; which we recollect he before did in his *Numi Veteres*. If there be any one coin with a Phœnician inscription,

inscription, apparently belonging to ACE, it is neither of those with the characters Barthelemy, Pellerin, and this author suppose; but that given by Mr. Dutens at the head of his Preface, the first letter on which is unquestionably *Α*, *Aleph*, whilst, on the other coins, the first letter is as indisputably *γ*, *Oin*; but, as the pursuit of this subject would lead us too far, we will only add (with a doubt, however, whether the second letter on Mr. Dutens' coin be *Γ*, *Caph*) that the second upon the rest is indisputably a *Ϛ*, *Resch*; for which we appeal to Mr. Dutens' alphabet, and the authorities collected in a MS. work, which is shortly designed for the press.—The Phœnician numerals on these coins, though requiring elucidation, are altogether passed over in silence; those, however, in Greek, of the different cities, are well explained; and upon the coins of Alexander, after his death, we meet with many judicious remarks.

The figure hitherto supposed to have been intended for *Victory*, on a coin of Demetrius the First, is proved, on classical grounds, to be *Fame*. Illustrative of other devices, a disquisition occurs on *Pan*, the *Causia*, and the *Orci galea* of Perseus,—which last, if sifted to the bottom, will be found, perhaps, nothing other than a symbol of the nocturnal hemisphere.

Going through Theßaly, on the coins of *Demetrius Sacra*, a dissertation is inserted, in which the author and Dr. Combe materially differ. Under *Pheræ*, the substance of what the abbé had before detailed in his *Numi Veteres*, is repeated. It will not, on this head, be impertinent to remark that it is shewn, in the MS. before referred to, where water is represented (as on this coin of Pheræ, those of Himæra, &c.) proceeding from the jaws of a lion, an hot spring was intended. From coins of Acarnania, the figure of Achelous is ascertained, in contradistinction to that of the Minotaur, with which it hath been often confounded. The coins of Thebes in Bœotia, exhibiting a shield charged with a club, give room for a disquisition concerning the inscribed shields of the Thebans.

The remarks of abbé Eckhel on the coins of Attica are solid and judicious: but the subject is far from being exhausted. Upon those of Achaia, many pertinent illustrations are found; particularly in the chapters that relate to the *ο*, on the coins of Corinth and Syracuse.

In reference to the coins of Elis, Mr. Knight's observations on FAZION are cited, but erroneously (from an equivocal expression in English) attributed by the abbé to *Richard Payne*; the additional name of *Knight* being taken for a title of honour. On the coins of Ithaca, the cock, from his promptitude to fight, is considered as an attribute of Mi-

nerva. Laconia, from one of its coins, brings up the dispute between Mr. Dutens and the abbé le Blond, which abbé Eckhel decides in favour of the former. The coins of Arcadia and Crete are accompanied with observations that highly deserve to be noticed.

Terminating his European researches at the Ægean Islands, the author recommences his progress from the Cimmerian Bosphorus. Under Pontus, a recapitulation is given of what had been advanced, in the *Numi Veteres*, concerning the decollation of Medusa by Perseus: which is followed by a reply to what Pellerin had answered, in his *Additions aux Recueils des Médailles*. The æra of *Amasia*, after an accurate inquiry, is determined to the year of Rome 747,—that of *Amisus* to 722,—the æra of *Comana* to 791-2,—and of *Neocæsarea*, to 816.

The coins of the kings of Pontus and the Cimmerian Bosphorus are preceded by a judicious digest of their history, from the writings of De Boze, Vaillant, Souciet, Cary, and Khevenhüller, and the epoch of the Bosphorus fixed to the year of Rome 457, before Christ 297.

The different epochs of Sinope, in Paphlagonia, are examined at length, and adjusted with precision; as is that likewise of Bithynia. In the accounts of the kings of Bithynia, a curious digression is inserted, to ascertain the wives of either Prusias.

A coin of Ephesus, the device of which represents Jupiter diffusing rain on the bosom of the earth, is well illustrated by citations from the poets, to which we will add the description of MILTON, as no wife inferior to the rest:

he, in delight
Both of her beauty and submissive charms,
Smil'd with superior love; as Jupiter
On Juno smiles, when he impregns the clouds,
That shed May-flow'rs.

Under *Smyrna*, the coins in honour of physicians, and of Homer, are particularly descanted on; and miscellaneous observations are annexed on magistracies, officers, titles, &c. to illustrate particular inscriptions. ΕΚΡΑΡ, on the coins of Tripolis, in Caria, is considered at some length; and the result of the research is closed by supposing it the abbreviation of ΕΧΑΡΑνωσε, or ΕΧΑΡΑνιζε, from χαρᾶνω, or χαρᾶνιζω, *vallum circumdo*; so that the whole inscription, ΘΕΟΔΩΡΟΣ. Β. ΕΧΑΡΑ. ΤΡΙΠΟΛΙΝ, signifies, *Theodorus, the second time magistrate, surrounded Tripolis with a rampart*. Just as, on the Ancyran marble, a person is celebrated for having completed and consecrated the walls of Ancyra: ΣΥΝΠΛΗΡΩΣΑΝΤΟΣ.

Κ. ΑΦΙΕΡΩΣΑΝΤΟΣ. ΤΗΙ. ΜΗΤΡΟΠΟΛΙ. ΤΟ. ΤΕΙΧΟΣ.—
However, as the termination *ἰζω* is *frequentative*, we prefer *ἐχαράκωσε*, in the foregoing inscription.

Doctrina Numorum Veterum, &c. Pars. I. Vol. III. Continens reliquam Asiam Minorem, et Regiones deinceps in Orientem sitas. 1794.

The subjects which occupy this volume, are Lycia—Pamphylia—Pisidia—Isauria—Lycaonia—Cilicia—Cyprus—Lydia—Phrygia—Galatia—Cappadocia—Armenia—Syriæ reges—Commagene—Cyrrehestica—Chalcidene—Palmyrene—Seleucis et Pieria—Cœlesyria—Trachonitis, Iturea—Decapolis—Phœnice—Galilæa—Samaritis—Judæa—Arabia—Mesopotamia—Parthia—Persia—Bactriana.

ΑΥ. on a coin with the head of Nerva, having for its reverse two lyres and an owl standing upon them, inscribed ΤΗΑΤΟΥ. ΤΡΙΤΟΥ. abbé Eckhel refers to Lycia, in opposition to Vailant, who attributes others similar to Lyttus, of Crete. The numerical characters on the coins of Pamphylia, Pisidia, and Cilicia, are noticed, and the list of them, given by abbé Belley, augmented. Of some of the coins referred to under the article *Side*, we hope soon to see a better account. The observations on those of Selge are worthy of remark. The epoch of Iconium is fixed to the interim of the years of Rome 228 and 247. On a coin of Ægæ, an apparent oversight of Dr. Combe is corrected, he having read ΑΙΠΕΑΙΩΝ for ΑΙΓΕΑΙΩΝ: the epoch of this city is determined to the year of Rome 707. In discussing various dates on the coins of Anazarbus, two epochs are ascertained from them, the one referring to the year of Rome 773, and the other to 735. From the device on a coin of Corycus, the devotion of the Corycians to Mercury is inferred, and supported not only by the term *Κωρυκιωτα* in an Orphic hymn, but by the following epigram of Archias:

Ἐρμῇ, Κωρυκιῶν ναιῶν πόλιν, ὠ ἀνα, χαίροισα,
Ἐρμῇ, καὶ λῆτῃ προσγελασσαῖς ὅττη.

On a coin of *Nagidus*, the abbé takes occasion to correct Strabo, who has *Αγιδος*; and himself, formerly supposing the figure of Jupiter to have been Bacchus. Under *Paphus*, evidence is adduced to show that Venus was there symbolised by a pyramid, of which there were three before her temple, the two lower on either side of the third, representing two *Parcæ*. A curious coin of *Dioshieron*, exhibiting the name of Corbulo, gives scope to various research. In illustration of a coin of Hyrcania, Euripides is cited, who describes Ceres as aided by

Pallas in the search of her daughter: $\alpha \delta$ εγχει Γοργω πανοπλος; and Claudian, who more appositely illustrates the device. The remarks on the coins of *Sardes* are well worthy of notice. On the celebrated *Apamæan* medal, a long dissertation is introduced; and we sincerely congratulate Mr. BRYANT, on having for his supporter the first medalist of Europe; who thus concludes his disquisition: 'Hæc liberalius disputasse nequaquam indignum visum, quod horum argumentum numorum ex præcipuis unum est, cui explicando crisis numismatica utiliter immoretur.'

Sebastæ in Galatia affords much matter of curious investigation, as do the coins of the kings of Galatia. Those of *Cæsarea in Cappadocia*, and *Castabala*, are happily illustrated, as is the history of the kings of Cappadocia and Armenia. Of the coins of the kings of Syria, a selection is made, with historical notices pertinent to them. Under the coins of *Palmyra*, a doubt is expressed, whether the two published by Woide, from Hunter's collection, in the sixth volume of the *Archæologia*, were of that city, but without assigning the reason. The coin in the same museum, and deemed an unique, of *Timelaus*, son of *Zenobia*, is altogether overlooked: perhaps abbé Eckhel never saw Mr. Pinkerton's work, where alone it is published.

The different æras of *Antioch* give occasion to a very accurate and important inquiry, in which the errors of former writers are corrected: indeed, all that occurs under *Seleucis Pieria*, is highly deserving attention. The like may be observed of *Cæle Syria*; *Trachonitis*, *Iturea*; and *Decapolis*; through which we arrive at *Phœnice*. As every part of *Phœnicia* is remarkable for its coins, this section is, in consequence, of considerable extent; and we are sorry to add, both of it and *Judæa*, the least perfect parts of the work.—Under *Berytus*, the abbé places a coin of *Antiochus IV.* which *Barthelemy* and *Pellerin* had rightly assigned to *Laodicea*, the *Phœnician* inscription unquestionably being ללאדכא אם בכנען , of *Laodicea*, a mother in *Canaan*. The abbé's three reasons for his decision appear to be most extraordinary: 1. because, the figure of *Neptune* on the reverse, is represented in such a manner as is never visible but on the coins of *Berytus*.—2. Because the characters $\Lambda\Lambda\Phi$, in the area, are only to be found on the coins of *Berytus*.—3. Because it is certain that *Berytus* sometimes used a *Phœnician* inscription, as is evident from fig. 8. plate lxxxi. of *Pellerin*; and it is not clear that that coin was of *Laodicea*.—Now, of these reasons, the first takes for granted the very point to be proved, as the inscription upon this and other coins of the same king, and also of *Demetrius*

metrius the Second (Nicator) having $\overline{\text{A}}$ instead of $\Delta\text{A}\Phi$, decidedly shows. Besides, that no one instance is cited of the like figure of Neptune on any coin of Berytus. 2. A similar assumption is contained in the second argument, inasmuch as no explanation is offered to demonstrate that the Greek characters, noticed on the reverse, were more appropriate to Berytus than to Laodicea; nor, in fact, is there an example of their occurrence on a coin of Berytus; for, on those of that city, the O over Φ is omitted. As to the 3d reason, if it prove aught, it will prove too much, unless it can be shown that the Phœnician characters on the coin of Berytus express the name of that city, because various other coins, as of Tyre and Sidon, exist with their names in Phœnician upon them.—The inscription on the coin, fig. 8. tab. lxxx. Pellerin, to which abbé Eckhel refers, no one has yet offered to explain. In Hebrew characters, it is לְנַח רִיב , and signifies literally *to the guide of the course*, which the device in connection clearly confirms, it representing the city personified standing on the prow of a galley, and holding aloft an acrostolium to the sun. Subjoined to the coins of Tyre, is a dissertation upon those with Phœnician inscriptions. In this the abbé has digested what has hitherto appeared on the subject, but omitting to add aught of his own. With much of what he had adduced, he appears to have been dissatisfied; and, we think, not unjustly. As to *Ace* or *Aco*, after having cited, without observing on his own mode of reading the name, viz. פּע , that of Barthélemy, נע , he does not overlook the נא of Dutens, but at the same time points at the indecision of writers in respect to the first letter, indiscriminately taken both for נ *Oin*, and for א *Aleph*. A second dissertation follows on the *Cilicio-Phœnician* coins: but on these he is not more satisfactory than before; and the same remark will apply to the third and fourth, which relate to the *Numidian* and *Spanish-Phœnician*. It is presumed, however, that more light will be thrown upon the last, when BAYER's investigations shall make their appearance. Under *Galilæa* and *Samaritis*, the author returns to medals with Greek inscriptions, on which he always is seen to advantage; as he likewise is on the coins of Judæa, till he comes to those signed with the names of its princes, where, by implicitly following Bayer, and not having recourse to Rasche, he hath overlooked the instances in which Bayer is corrected. The chapter concerning *the characters on the Hebrew coins* presents a concise view of the subject; as does that concerning *their genuineness*, strictures on Tychsen, which Tychsen will not easily forget. Following Bayer and Barthélemy through this series, the subject is left to others for further elucidation:

tion: that, however, may be looked for both from *abate* FABRICIJ, who is about publishing cardinal Borgia's coins of this class, and a countryman of our own, who has been long engaged on the subject. This division of the princes of Judæa is closed with the coins of the *Herods*, which are illustrated by a very valuable discussion. Having passed through Arabia and Mesopotamia, the volume concludes with the coins of the kings of Parthia and Persia.

Doctrina Numorum Veterum, &c. Pars I. Vol. IV. continens Ægyptum, et Regiones Africae deinceps in Occasum sitas—Observata Generalia ad Partem I. hujus Operis et Indices in Partem I. 1794.

This volume, which completes the first part of the work, augments the value of the rest; for, after having gone through the countries that remained, it presents such *general observations* as apply to the whole, under heads not only of importance to the study of coins, but equally useful to the knowledge of the ancients.

The coins of cities, peoples, and kings, that were left unconsidered, are those of—Ægypt, distinguished as coins of Alexandria and the Ægyptian nomes—Marmarica—Cyrenaica—Syrtica—Byzacene—Zeugitana—Numidia—Mauritania—Uncertain coins of peoples and cities—Coins of uncertain kings—Coins of barbarians—and coins barbarously imitated by them.

Under the common denomination of *Ægypt*, after having disclaimed all the money that existed prior to the Persian government, and the pieces found under the tongues of mummies, as foreign to his subject, he begins with instancing the first example of a coinage in this country (recorded by Herodotus), in the instance of Aryandes, the governor under Cambyses, whom Darius, his successor, put to death for having arrogated to himself this function of sovereignty: whence it is judiciously inferred that, at this time, the money in Ægypt was Persian. Having answered the objections to this conclusion, he fixes the origin of the coins properly Ægyptian, to the reign of Ptolemy, and their end at the overthrow of Cleopatra in the battle of Actium. Hence the coins of Ægypt are considered under *three* divisions: 1. those of its native kings: 2. of the Roman emperors: and 3. of the Ægyptian nomes.

Marmarica, the next district, has only two coins referable to it with any degree of certainty; for that of Faustina the elder, with ΑΜΜΩΝ, exhibits nothing appropriate to *Ammonia*: nor is it to be admitted that the other, with a *dolphin*
on

on the face, and the reverse a *trident*, inscription ΠΕ-ΡΑ, should be assigned to *Petra*. The two, one having a *frog*, the other an *ox*, and therefore ascribed by Pellerin to *Apis* and *Batrachus*, though left by abbé Eckhel in doubt, we have no scruple to assign to *Ægypt*; and more especially the latter, since the *Ibis* on the reverse relates immediately to the Nile.

The coins of *Cyrenaica* are distinguished, as of *Cyrene*, *whilst free*—subject to the *kings of Egypt*—and to the *emperors of Rome*. The celebrity of this district for its antiquity, natural productions, wealth, and arts, gives occasion to curious research.

Passing over the short sections of *Syrta* and *Byzacene*—not however from their being unworthy of notice—we come to *Zeugitana*, in which *Carthage* occurs as the first city of importance. Here abbé Eckhel surprises us by maintaining that the Carthaginians, whilst free, employed not coins for the media of their commerce, but gold, silver, and brass: an inference which he draws from the position, that, if coined money had been used amongst them, a state so opulent and powerful must have left some certain standard of proportion, device, form, and weight, by which their coins might be known, as well as those of the Romans, Athenians, and others. In confirmation of this, he subjoins that the ancient writers who have recorded both captures of Carthage by the Scipios, mention the silver brought thence in plunder simply by weight; whilst, in respect to the plunder of Spain, Macedonia, and Asia, Livy and others specify the silver coined, as well as in mafs. In vain to this should we oppose the evidence of the *Columna Rosstrata* (an OM. CAPTOM. NVMEI, &c. argen-TOM. CAPTOM. PRAEDA NVMEI, &c. CAPTOM. AES. &c.) for—though the express sums in coins of gold, silver, and brass, which C. Duilius took from the Carthaginians in the first sea-fight, are particularised upon it,—abbé Eckhel would add that this was not money stricken at Carthage, but carried from the cities of Sicily, and, in part, Punic-Sicilian, now styled of Panormus. Yet, admitting this, does it follow, that, because the weight of the silver taken by the Scipios is mentioned in the gross, no part of that silver was coined? or, because different writers at distant periods had specified the distinct sums of coined money which other nations had been plundered of, no coined money could have existed at Carthage? When the extensive commerce of Carthage is considered, and the utility of coined money for the purposes of trade,—when it is known that Tyre, from which Carthage was founded, had coins of her own under the empire of the Persians, and that many still remain of her colonies in Sicily,—it seems little less than a solecism to imagine

she herself should have been destitute of coinage, prior to her capture by the Romans.—What is said in the Eryxias, of her money being *leather*, the abbé on that authority rejects, readily admitting that dialogue to be spurious. Aristides is however cited by him in support of the fact, which probably had its origin in the *Βύρα*, or bull's-hide of Dido. (See Henderich's Carthago, p. 23.)—It remains, after all, to be determined, whether some of those coins attributed to the Punic cities in Sicily were not properly of Carthage; and if the Phœnician characters upon them be not explicitly in point. The scarcity, or abolition even, of the Carthaginian money, and consequently the different phraseology of the historians, on which the abbé hath laid so much stress, may be rationally explained from the *delenda est Carthago* of Cato; every record, book, and memorial, of that city, having been utterly demolished: a fate very different from those of Spain, Macedonia, or the conquests in Asia. The coined money of Carthage could have been of no value to the Romans, otherwise than as metal, and therefore was rated by weight; but if what Florus relates were true, most of it was melted by the Carthaginians themselves,—‘in armorum officinis aurum et argentum pro ære ferroque conflatum est:’—yet, had it been otherwise, the seventeen days’ conflagration of the city (the inhabitants of which had set fire to their houses and temples, to rescue them from being plundered by the Romans) would sufficiently account for its being destroyed.—Other articles in this section merit regard.

Under *the kings of Numidia and Mauritania*, though but little occurs that is new, there are many strictures interspersed, of importance; and the same may be remarked on the sections that remain.

Of the *General Observations*, which occupy two thirds of the volume, we can barely recapitulate the titles. CHAP. I. styled *De magistratibus et titulis honorificis*, comprehends *magistratus domestici*, and, under these, treats in *Seç. I.* De ordinibus civitatum—De archontibus, prætoribus, scribis—De ephoris—De prytanibus—De quæstoribus—De pontificibus—De Asiarcha—De stephanephoris—De panegyriarchis, agnothetis, gymnasiarchis—De theologo—De hieromnemone—De Amphictyonibus—De curatoribus—De sophistis.

Seç. II. Magistratus Romani. De ordinibus Romanorum—De consulibus—De proconsulibus, proprætoribus, legatis, præsidibus—De quæstoribus, proquæstoribus, quæstoribus procos. quæstoribus propr.—De procuratoribus—De pontifice, VIIviro epulonum—De parentibus, patronis.

CHAP. II. *De magistratu eponymo.* CHAP. III. *De urbibus autonomis, liberis, immunibus.* CHAP. IV. *De urbibus amicis*

et fœderatis. CHAP. V. *De urbibus metropolibus.* CHAP. VI. *De urbibus primis.* CHAP. VII. *De populis et urbibus neocoris.* CHAP. VIII. *De urbibus sacris, et asyli jure gaudentibus.* CHAP. IX. *De urbibus navarchidibus.*

CHAP. X. *De mentione situs et magnitudinis*,—a regionibus, populis, urbibus—a montibus—a luco—ab *αῶ* et *κατὰ*—a mari—a fluviis et fontibus—a magnitudine.

CHAP. XI. *De urbium variis nominibus.* CHAP. XII. *De urbibus originem suam, aut communicatam cum aliis civitatem professis.* CHAP. XIII. *De urbibus imperatorum nomina sibi addentibus.* CHAP. XIV. *De reliquis urbium epithetis.*

CHAP. XV. *De concordia.* Concordia generatim sumpta—Concordia inter Augustos—Concordia exterorum cum Romanis—Concordia civitatum secum ipsis—Concordia cum civitate una, vel pluribus.

CHAP. XVI. *De adlusione ad urbis populivæ nomen.* CHAP. XVII. *De heroibus, heroidibus, conditoribus, personis illustribus.*

CHAP. XVIII. *De numis cistophoris.* Eorum catalogus—patria—typi—inscripta magistratuum nomina—eorum origo, et ætas—metallum, pondus, usus, copia—Cistophori improprii.

CHAP. XIX. *De numis inscriptis: ANΘΗΚΕ.*

CHAP. XX. *De characteribus chronologicis.* De epocha—De epochis urbium, populorum, regum monetæ inscriptis, earumque initio—De modo, quo anni in numis scribi consuevere—De epochis in moneta vetere latius patentibus: viz. Æra Seleucidarum—Æra Pompeiana—Æra Cæsariana—Æra Actiaca—De variis unius ejusdemque urbis epochis—De epocha duplici in uno eodemque numo—De anni apud veteres initio—De modo epocharum exordia eruendi—De annis principatus et magistratus—De numis inscriptis: ETOTΣ. NEOΥ. IEPOΥ.—De mensibus et diebus.

CHAP. XXI. *De festis et ludis.* Commune—Catalogus festorum ludorumque.

CHAP. XXII. *De numis regum, principum, &c.* Catalogus regionum, et urbium, quæ numos regum, principumve suorum nomine signaverunt—De nominibus principum—De mentione dignitatis in numis principum—De variis principum titulis epithetis—De insignibus regum et principum.

CHAP. XXIII. *De numis coloniarum.* Catalogus coloniarum R. et municipiorum—Quæ coloniarum R. et municipiorum ratio—De inscriptionibus in numis coloniarum et municipiorum—De coloniarum et municipiorum nominibus epithetis—De magistratibus in his: viz. Ilviri—Ilviri quinquennales. Præfecti Ilviri et quinquennales—IIIviri—Ædiles—Decuriones—De conditione magistratuum municipalium—Cæsares

et reges Ilviri.—De typis in numis coloniarum et municipiorum—De permiffa signandæ in coloniis monetæ—De metallo in coloniarum numis—Quando numi in coloniis feriri defuerint—De numis heterogeneis in moneta coloniarum.

To these very interesting researches, are added an index of *countries, peoples, and cities*; a second, *of kings and princes*; a third, *of singular inscriptions*; and a fourth, *of things*.

In a review of volumes abounding with such variety of important topics, we lament that so few can be particularised and remarked upon by us. Where we have seen defects, they have been incidentally mentioned. Considering, however, the extent of the work, they, though not trifling, are comparatively few. Should we attempt to commend where commendation is deserved, it would exhaust the language of praise.

Voyage de deux Français en Allemagne, Danemarck, Suède, Russie et Pologne. Fait en 1790—1792. 5 Tomes. Paris, 1796.

The Travels of two Frenchmen in Germany, Denmark, Sweden, Russia, and Poland, performed in 1790—92. 5 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 5s. sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

THE Preface to this work informs us that it was prepared for the press by one of the two gentlemen who performed the journey, and who is now separated from his companion. The troubles of France prevented an earlier publication; and it was part of the original plan to have given an Atlas of maps, views, &c. either taken or corrected upon the spot; but the expense of this addition was calculated to be enormous, and the consequent delay of the publication must have greatly exceeded the time promised. Our author proposes, however, to execute this Atlas as soon as a due proportion shall be established between specie and paper-money.

The first volume treats of part of Germany and of Denmark; the second comprehends Sweden, and extends to Petersburg; the third and fourth are wholly taken up with Russia, and the fifth, with Poland and Austria. Sweden and Russia being the countries where the author made the longest stay, and which are least perfectly known in France, the greatest pains have been taken to procure information respecting every thing that relates to the arts, manufactures, public establishments, commerce, and other objects which merit attention. He professes that the work is calculated for the use of travellers rather than
common

common readers; it was intended as a guide to those who may hereafter visit the countries described, and to prevent their meeting with the disappointments he experienced. His details may appear uniform and tiresome; but he thinks they will be approved by the traveller, to whose benefit he is very willing to sacrifice the applause he might receive from other readers. As the universality of the French tongue seems to afford a Frenchman an excuse for being ignorant of every other language, he has given a Swedish, Russian and Illyrian vocabulary, which comprehends all the words most necessary in travelling, written as they ought to be pronounced. Having often observed that Frenchmen make the tour of Europe without having acquired the previous knowledge which is absolutely necessary to prevent strangers from being amused at their expense, he thinks he renders them some service by giving a short review of the history of the states of the North, which, without precluding the necessity of a more profound attention to the subject, will at least enable them to avoid gross errors in conversation. Each volume concludes with an itinerary, on the correctness of which, we are assured, the traveller may depend. If the author sometimes speaks of things he has not seen, he affirms nothing positively but of what he has seen: and if his accounts be found to differ from those of other travellers, he begs not to be condemned merely for such differences. As to the accounts which it was necessary for him to procure from others, he has spared no expense to ascertain their correctness; and as to his opinions, he lays claim to the merit of boldness and impartiality.

Such are the outlines of the Preface to the work, which appears to correspond with the professions held out. It is not, properly speaking, a book of travels, but what is now called a statistical account of each country, geographical, political, commercial and literary, including more particularly the productions natural and artificial, state of the arts, commerce, population, tables of monies, descriptions of the palaces of the princes and nobles, libraries, picture-galleries, a list of the subjects, with the names of the painters, and a criticism; busts, statues, and other ornaments; catalogues are also given of the museums and private collections of curiosities of all kinds; tables of commerce, exports and imports; ships belonging to the respective ports; the royal navy, revenues, armies, arsenals, and, in a word, every particular which is necessary to constitute a statistical account. The historical part is short, but generally accompanied with sensible remarks; and there is a considerable portion of novelty in the observations made on the state of society in Russia, Denmark, &c.

Many curious extracts might be given from a work which
contains

contains such a variety of information. Perhaps what we have selected will be most proper for a literary journal,—the account our author gives of the PRINCIPAL LIBRARIES he visited; and which is seldom to be met with in books of travels.

Stutgard.—THE DUKE OF WIRTEMBERG'S LIBRARY. It was begun in 1768, and already amounts to 100,000 volumes. This prince is a great collector of ancient books (*a la fureur des livres anciens*;) he has often travelled in pursuit of them, and has always given liberal prices. His collection of bibles is unique: they amount to 9000; and 3000 more are wanted to make it complete; they are in all languages, and of all editions. The most remarkable are, the Italian, 1471, *Venice*,—the French, 1520, *Paris*,—German, 1462, *Mentz*. His German collection is complete;—The Latin, without the year, *Mentz*;—Spanish, 1551, *Ferrara*;—four copies in the Grison, very scarce, English, 1541, *London*, in black letter;—Danish, 1550, *Copenhagen*;—Islandic, 1584, *Holoum*;—Swedish, 1524, *Stockholm*;—Polish, 1563, printed at the expense of the Radzivil family;—Bohemian, 1488, *Prague*;—Esclavonic, 1584, *Wirtemberg* in Saxony; Russian, 1744;—Dutch, 1721, five volumes, in capitals, printed by order of the Czar Peter; the Russian translation was to have accompanied it; but is added only to the New Testament. This is a superb edition and very scarce. Le Clerc, in his History of Russia, says that the empress Elizabeth, to please the priests, gave them up the whole edition.—The Georgian, 1743;—Wallachian, 1688, *Bucharest*;—Greek, 1487, *Naples*; there are only fragments of this;—the Armenian, 1733, *Venice*;—Arabic, 1671, *Rome*. These are the most ancient in the respective languages. This library contains mote than 2000 volumes printed before the year 1500, and a complete collection of the memoirs of all sovereign families and towns.

Munich.—The ELECTOR OF BAVARIA'S LIBRARY contains a collection of valuable manuscripts;—three copies of the Bible in German, printed at Augsbourgh in 1461, as is believed, for there is no date;—a beautiful manuscript written on the *papyrus* of Egypt, which the pope caused to be copied when he was here in 1782. A missal in three large volumes in folio, and three volumes of explanations, with beautiful ornaments and miniatures, much superior to the famous missal of S. Ouen at Rouen.—A beautiful manuscript of Virgil on vellum:—*Ars Moriendi*, but not the first edition. Great pains are daily taking to arrange this library, which contains more than 100,000 volumes.

Dresden.—THE ELECTOR'S LIBRARY contains 150,000 volumes, and 5000 manuscripts; the most complete part of this

this library is the History of all Countries, and the Greek and Latin authors;—*Ars Memorandi*, wood-cuts illuminated;—*Ars Moriendi*, the first edition;—*Biblia Pauperum*, wood-cuts, the text upon the cuts: these three works are uncommonly rare.—The first Psalter, 1457, Fust and Scheffer, Mentz, on vellum.—*Rationale Divinorum Officiorum*, on vellum, 1459, the first book printed on cut metal types, by Fust and Gensfleisch.—*Catholicon*, in 2 vols. folio, on vellum, 1460, Mentz; a beautiful copy, in fine preservation.—A Mexican manuscript written on the human skin, which Thevenot has explained; it consists of a calendar, and some fragments of the history of the Incas.—*Liber de Re Militari*, a MS. on vellum, with fine paintings, in good preservation. It was a present to one of the electors from Matthias Corvinus, king of Hungary.—The original MS. of the Reveries of Marechal de Saxe, and a copy written under his inspection; at the end of the MS. he informs his readers that he composed this work in thirteen nights, while labouring under a fever, and that it was finished in December 1733.—The Portraits of the most celebrated Men of the sixteenth Century, by Rabel, a Frenchman; very fine, and cost 800 ducats.—A beautiful copy of the Koran, taken by a Saxon officer from a Turk at the last siege of Vienna; it belonged to Bajazet the Second.—The most ancient Greek MS. is the Epistles of St. Paul, of the eleventh century.—There are 600 editions of the Aldus's.—*Cicero de Officiis*, 1465, Mentz; the first Greek letters ever printed are in this copy, in the book of Paradoxes. There are two copies of it: in that which is the best preserved, some one has altered 1465 to 1440, before printing was invented.—Julius Cæsar, folio, Rome, 1469, in *Ædibus Maximorum*; it is supposed to have been printed by Suenheim and Panhardts, who carried the art of printing to Rome.—The first edition of Homer, Florence, 1488, in fine preservation. All these are on the first story of the building.

In the second, we have the Latin Bible of 1462, Mentz, on vellum, Fust.—*Biblia Romanſcha*, 1743, chez les Grisons, very scarce.—The German Bible, without date or place; the Acts of the Apostles are at the end; after the Epistle to the Galatians, is one addressed to the Laodiceans.—The Italian Bible, 1471.—Spanish ditto, Amsterdam, 1502.—The Acts of the Apostles, in a comedy, Couteau, Paris, 1537. The comedy de l'Homme Pécheur, acted at Tours, Paris, Antoine Berard, 1481, with beautiful cuts, on vellum, in fine preservation. Upon the whole this is a very fine library, and, after that of Vienna, the first without comparison, at least of those we have seen.

Berlin.—The ROYAL LIBRARY.—Our travellers give but a sorry

a sorry account of this collection. The books have been heaped together without order or arrangement, since the year 1784. They asked the librarian for some valuable books; he assured them that he had such, but he knew not where to find them: and after a few more questions which he did not think he ought to answer, he turned upon his heel and left them. They console themselves, however, with the reflection, that they have seen as much as *any other person*, of this library.

Copenhagen.—The KING'S LIBRARY contains nearly one hundred and thirty thousand volumes, and 3000 MSS. In the library of MSS. and curiosities, are, *Heures de François I.* illuminated,—a Breviary on vellum; both very beautiful.—Four large volumes of plants, painted on vellum from nature, at Gottorp, attributed to madame Merian, and exquisite both in execution and preservation.—Livy, a MS. of the tenth century, not complete, and one volume only.—*Heures du Duc de Bourgogne*, who was killed before Nancy, illuminated and well preserved. *Heures du Cardinal de Bourbon*, who lived under Louis XI. illuminated.—Danish Chronicle. in verse, believed to be of the 15th century.—All the MSS. brought home by Niebuhr, at least 250: he was living in 1791 at Meldorf in Holstein.—The Malabaric Bible complete. The collection of the History of Spain and part of the Indies is very complete.—In another part of the library we have the most ancient Danish Bible of 1550, folio, *Copenhagen.*—The Epistles of St. Paul, folio, Roschild, 1534.—The Islandic Bible, Holoum, 1584;—another, 1644.—Psalter, 12mo. Roschild, 1531.—Psalter in four languages, Hebrew, Greek, Latin and Chaldaic, *Cologne*, 1518.—Psalter, Greek and Latin, *Milan*, 1481.—Office of the Virgin, MS. 12mo. on vellum, ornamented with beautiful paintings; nothing can be finer; the date unknown. *Cicero de Officiis*, Rome, Suenheym and Panhardts, 1471;—the same, by Fust, *Mentz*, 1465 and 1466, both in fine preservation;—the same, Rome, Pet. de Max. 1469;—the same, Venice, 1470; these five editions in round letters.—The first edition of Justin, without a date;—Ditto with the date, Rome 1470, both fine copies.—Livy, Rome, 1468;—ditto, *Spire*, 1469;—ditto 1470.—Two editions of Virgil without date.—The 4th edit. of Virgil, *Louvain*, 1476. The third is not here.—Terence, without date;—ditto, *Cologne*, 1471;—ditto, without date; the verses not divided.—Plautus of 1472, *Venice*, very fine.—St Augustine, *de Civitate Dei*, 1467, *Venice*, well preserved and complete. This library has an annual fund of 4000 rix dollars.

Stockholm.—The KING'S LIBRARY contains only about 500 MSS. and 20,000 volumes. The most valuable of the MSS. are, a copy of the Evangelists, purchased at Madrid in 1690;

1690; supposed to be of the ninth century, and usually called the *Codex Aureus*, from the quantity of letters of gold that are in it; the leaves are alternately purple, with letters of gold, and white. It was purchased by Sparwenfeld, a Swede, who travelled by order of Charles XI. He went to Africa in pursuit of any monuments that had a relation to the ancient history of the Goths and Vandals. There are two other very curious MSS. of which we shall speak more at large at the end of this article. Of the books, the most valuable are the copy of the Vulgate used by Luther: it is filled on the margin, and on every place where there was room to write, with notes by his own hand: it was printed at Lyons in 1521.—The first edition of Homer, *Florence*, 1488, large margin, on paper, and in good preservation.—*Speculum Humanæ Salvationis*, woodcuts, printed only on one side.—*Cicero de Officiis*, on vellum, 1466, *Mentz*, Fust and Schæffer.—The fourth volume of the *Atlantique* of Rudbeck, 1702, as far as page 210: this volume is extremely scarce, the edition having been burnt at the printer's. There are only three copies of it in existence. On this work the reader will find a long and curious dissertation in these travels.—*Liscri Poligamia Triumphatrix*, printed at Lund, 1682, and burnt at Stockholm.

The two curious MSS. of which an account has just been promised, were not allowed to be shown to our travellers; for the information, therefore, which they give respecting them, they were indebted to the Abbé Albertrandi, librarian to the king of Poland. These MSS. are both written in Latin. The first is of an uncommonly large size, and such proportions, that the skin (though called vellum) on which it is written, can be no other than ass-skin. It is composed of forty books or volumes (*cabiers*), making in all six hundred and forty pages. It wants about two leaves; the history of the deluge forms the first page. The following is the order and number of the works it contains: the Pentateuch, Joshua, Judges, Ruth, Isaiah, Jeremiah, Ezekiel, Daniel, which has the last two chapters. The 12 prophets, Job, the four books of Kings; the Psalms, a different version from the Vulgate, Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, the Song of Songs, Wisdom, Ecclesiasticus, Chronicles, the book of Esdras, containing the two of the Vulgate; Tobit, Judith, Esther, two books of Maccabees;—twenty books of Josephus's Hebrew Antiquities, a translation which differs in several parts from that of Gelenius, and has the celebrated passage concerning Jesus Christ;—the wars of the Jews from Josephus, the translation of which agrees exactly with that of Rufinus;—*Sancti Isidori Epistola ad Brantionem; ejusdem Etimologia, libri xx; Isagogæ Jo-*

nicii, *Johannis Alexandrini Discipuli Regni Galieni de Physicæ Ratione*;—the four Evangelists, Acts, Epistle of James, two Epistles of Peter, three Epistles of John; in the first the celebrated passage runs thus: "*Spiritus est qui testificatur quia Christus est veritas; quia tres sunt qui testimonium dant, spiritus aqua et sanguis; et tres unum sunt*;" the Epistle of St. Jude, Apocalypse, St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans, the two to the Corinthians, to the Galatians, Ephesians, Philippians, the two to the Thessalonians, Colossians, the two to Timothy, Titus, Philemon, Hebrews, Laodiceans; the latter is known to be apocryphal.

Towards the end of this work is a confession written in red letters on a brown ground; it speaks of an infinity of abominable sins, without giving the exact number, or the circumstances.—This is followed by *Cosmæ Pragensis Chronica Bohemiæ, libri tres*;—*Monasterii Bremnorviensis, et in Bramorv Martinus abbas misit hunc codicem Pragæ versus 1594*. There is no doubt that this MS. was taken by the Swedes at Prague, and that it came from that convent. We find, in the calendar, *Sanctus Benedictus* in large letters; which gives reason to think that the convent in which it was kept was of the order of that saint. St. Adelbert is written in red letters: St. Stanislaus is not to be found.—The Visitation, the Commemoration of the Dead, and the Sacrament, are also wanting. Easter and Pentecost are there; so that it is posterior to the establishment of movable feasts, which took place in 1260 or 1264. There is likewise a part of it where many princes and nobles have written their names.

The other MS. is entitled—*Magistri Johannis Arderum de Slezwark, de Arte Physicali et de Chirurgia, quas ego Johannes fervente pestilentia, quæ fuit anno Domini MCCCXLIX. usque annum Domini MCCCCXII, morem (or moram) egi apud Newerk, in Comitatu Slothingui, et ibidem quamplures de infirmitatibus subscriptis curavi*. This MS. is upon vellum, and is a roll of considerable length, and divided into columns, containing figures of the sick, the maladies and remedies, anatomical figures, &c. There are few disorders omitted; he seems even to have met with a disorder not supposed to have been known at the time; his words are *pro morbo qui dicitur ch..d p..se*. He speaks also of a cure which he performed. "*Quidam miles nobilis ducis Lancastriæ apud Agexir (in Spain) Historia curatæ a Johanne Arderum torture oris*."

Moscow.—The LIBRARY of ST. SYNODIUS contains nearly 4600 volumes, almost all divinity; but an hundred and eighty volumes of it, consisting of French, German, English, Dutch, and

and Italian books, which belonged to Peter I. In one book of engravings relative to war, there are notes in his hand writing, expressing how he approved of such a plate, and how it was executed. In a volume of MSS. is a letter of his to count Pouschin, ordering him to give a description of the triumphal *fetes* which took place after the battle of Pultowa. The military discipline of Peter I. signed by his hand in 1716. Among the ancient MSS. we observed the following: "Ecclesiastical rules sent by the patriarchs of Constantinople to the prelates of Russia, and signed by them."—A small book of the Evangel, on vellum, written in the 15th century, which served as a book of prayers, complete.—The Slavonic Evangel, a folio of the 15th century. The collection of MSS. has become less numerous and less important, since the empress ordered to be brought to Petersburg all the MSS. relative to the history of Russia, which could be found in the convents, where the only libraries in the empire were placed. The collection of Russian books printed at Moscow amounts to 300; foreign books 1,100: there are only two books of the end of the 15th century which are curious. The only work that is complete is "*Traſtatus Florum Astrologiæ Albumasario, Auguſtæ Vindelicorum*, 1488."—The French Bible of Louis and Daniel Elzevir, folio, 1669, a magnificent copy.—Walton's Polyglot, 1657, without the Dedication *ſereniſſimo prot.*—There is also a great number of Polish books, and a Greek grammar for learning the Russian tongue, printed at Lwow in Poland, 1591, with some Greek and Slavonic books, none very curious, and a dozen Hebrew Bibles. The oldest Bible in this library is that of 1562, *Moscow*, a small folio, and in bad preservation. The catalogue is well drawn up in Latin and Russian. It is necessary to obtain permission of the archbishop of Moscow to view this library.

Poland.—The ZALEWSKI LIBRARY; or library of the republic. This was given by the two brothers Zalewski, one of whom was bishop of Cracow. They expended large sums in collecting, and opened it for the public in 1745: but as they left no funds for it, it has scarcely been increased, nor preserved as it ought be. It reckons about 200,000 volumes. There are but few scarce or valuable books; but among these our authors mention the first Polish Bible of 1562 or 1564 (the last figure is effaced) printed at Cracow, in 4to. with wood cuts; the author of the translation unknown. The Bible of Radzivil is not here. The Polish Bible, translated by Budny, 1572, uncommonly scarce; it is the private property of the librarian. The Psalms, in the Polish, with the

Latin interlined, the spelling Bohemian, *Cracow*, 1539, Hungler. This is supposed to have been the first Polish book printed, and is scarce.—*Prymiot*, a volume in octavo, 1551, *Cracow*, or, a Treatise on the Venereal Disease, which the author calls *Maladie de la Cour*.—*Virgil*, Nuremberg, 1492.—*Speculum Historiale Bellovacense*, printed by Mentelin, without the name of the place, 1473.—*Breviarium Argentinenſe*, a MS. on vellum, without plates, believed to be of the 12th century, in good preservation.—*Ciceronis Epistolæ*, Rome 1490, but not well preserved.—*Lactantius*, 1476, Rostock—the same, *Venice*, 1497.—*Saint Leo*, *Venice*, 1483.—*Miscellanea*, containing 13 works; the first is *Jamblicus de Myſteriis Ægyptiorum*, and the last, *Marcilii Ficini Florentini de Voluptate Liber*, *Venice*, ap. Aldos, Sept. 1497, (written with the hand);—on the text is 1457; but it is of the former year.—*Cicero de Officiis*, *Venice*, 1480;—ditto, *Venice*, 1484, on which some one has written *omnium prima*; with a commentary.—*Cicero de Oratore*, *Venice*, 1478.

Vienna.—THE IMPERIAL LIBRARY.—This superb edifice, the architecture and decoration of which leave us nothing to wish, is contiguous to the court. It is 242 feet long, ornamented with columns and pilastres in stucco, the bases and capitals of which are gilt. There are 17 statues of marble, of the house of Hapsburg, and in the middle of the rotunda, that of the emperor Charles VI.—The library of prince Eugene occupies a great part of this oval rotunda, the larger diameter of which measures near 100 feet.—In the cabinet of MSS. we find a chart of the ancient world, by Peutinger; it has been engraved in a folio volume.—A Mexican MS. with coloured figures, unique in its kind, and written upon the human skin.—A beautiful machine, representing the system of Copernicus, made by a man who, they tell us, had no knowledge of that branch: we are often surprised at the number of works of this kind which have been found out to be made by men who knew nothing.—The celebrated MS. of Livy, of the fifth century, some pages wanting.—A Chinese MS.—A small Koran on vellum, taken from a Turk by prince Eugene.—*Senatus Consultum*, on the Bacchanalian Feasts, given in the year 186 B.C. the original itself on brass; it is the same which Livy cites in the ninth book of the fourth decade; this unique morsel was found in Calabria, in the possession of prince Cigala.—A Fragment of the Gospels of St. Mark and St. Luke, a MS. in letters of gold and silver.

In one of the galleries on the left are about 7000 volumes printed before the year 1500.—The first Psalter on fusile types,

types, *Mentz*, Fust, on vellum, 1457.—*Speculum Humanæ Salvationis*, purchased at the sale of the duke de la Vallière, without date, printed with wooden types, and matchless.—*Biblia Pauperum*, engraved on wood.—A superb *Pliny*, *Venice*, Joh. Spira, 1769. A very beautiful *Virgil* in Gothic letters, by Mentellin at *Straßburg*.—*Christianismi Restitutio*, by Servetus, 1553, a thick octavo; the only other copy is at Paris, but not so well preserved.—*Julius Cæsar*, on vellum, 1469, *Rome*, in fine preservation.—*Terence*, in Gothic letters, the verses not separated.—*Valerius Maximus*, on paper, well preserved, without date, but believed to have been printed at Venice; there is one like it in the possession of count Revitski.—*Navis Stultifera*, 1499, the first edition, in German, with wood-cuts.—*Horace*, without a date.—*Caii Valerii Flacci Argonauticon Liber*, *Bologna*, 1474.—*Marci Martii Poetæ Opera*, *Bologna*, 1474. These three last are very beautiful books, and in fine preservation: De Bure doubts the existence of the Mantius.—*Rationale Divinorum Officiorum*, by Durandi, *Mentz*, Fust, 1459.—The *Mentz Bible*, Fust, 1462, the cipher and arms of the emperor at the end.—*Catholicon*, 2 vols. *Mentz*, 1460.—German Bible, 1466, Mentellin, *Straßburg*, the most ancient German Bible in this library.—The Bible, called the *Mazarine*, very beautiful and well preserved, on paper, 1455. See DeBure and Cailleau.

In the main building of this library, there is a most superb collection of prints, contained in more than 700 large volumes, 217 of which contain portraits of persons of all ages and nations.—The *Radzivil Bible* in fine preservation.—A leaf, eight inches long by rather more than six in breadth, on one side of which the five books of Moses are written without abbreviations, and legible by the naked eye: this was the work of a Jew.—*Christianismi Restitutio*, a present from the count de Laky; the emperor Joseph gave him in return a diamond worth 10,000 florins. This library, which is highly worthy of the admiration of all strangers, contains between twelve and fourteen thousand manuscripts, and about 300,000 volumes; it is open to the public every day in the morning, except Sundays, holidays, and in vacation time.

The artist, the virtuoso, the merchant, and the traveller, have a valuable fund of information in these volumes; although, in such a vast mass of particulars, it is possible some things may be found incorrect; but the work has the merit of very general utility.

Hymni Homerici, cum reliquis Carminibus minoribus Homero tribui solitis, et Batrachomyomachia. Addita est Demetrii Zeni Versio Batrachomyomachiae Dialecto Vulgari, et Theodori Prodromi Galeomyomachia. Textum recensuit, et Animadversionibus criticis illustravit, Carolus David Ilgen, Philos. et LL. OO. Prof. in Acad. Jenensi. Halis Saxonum, 1796.

Hymns, and other small Pieces, attributed to Homer; including the Battle between the Frogs and Mice; with a Version of the last Poem by Demetrius Zenus in the modern Greek Dialect, and a dramatic Piece by Theodorus Prodromus, entitled the Battle of the Cats and Mice. Revised, and illustrated. with critical Notes, by Professor Ilgen. 8vo. 12s. Sewed. Imported by Escher.

IT has long been disputed, whether the minor poems ascribed to Homer are genuine or spurious. Some critics are of opinion, that the only remains of this admired bard are the Iliad and the Odyssey; while others maintain that the hymns to Apollo and other pagan deities were composed by him. M. Ilgen is of opinion that the hymn to the Delian Apollo may justly be ranked among the works of Homer; but that the other pieces of this kind were not the productions of his Muse. It is probable, however, that even that which the professor deems genuine was composed by some other poet, in imitation of the Homeric style.

The two first hymns in the collection were considered as one poem, till Ruhnken, by separating the part which relates to the Pythian or Delphic Apollo from that which contains the praises of the Delian, formed two pieces. The sagacity of this division is pompously applauded by our editor, who, in the same note, reprehends the abbé Souchay for having presumed to compare the hymns of Callimachus with those which bear the name of Homer, both with respect to the general plan, and the distribution of the parts. The former, says M. Ilgen, are complex, desultory, and void of discrimination of character; while the latter exhibit an unity of action, characteristic distinctions, and other marks of epic beauty and regularity. It may here be observed, that he is too great an admirer of the pieces which he has laboured to illustrate.

In the hymn to Apollo of Delos, the 59th line—

Δηρον ανακτ' εἰ βοσκοῖς, οἱ τε θεοὶ κε σ' εχῶσι,

is properly stigmatised as deserving of rejection; for it seems to have been added by some ancient critic. The 123d line—

Οὐδ' ἄρ' Ἀπολλῶνα, ἔς.—

is also deemed an interpolation. The 151st and following
lines

line appear to be justly altered; and other proposed changes are not injudicious.

The hymn to the Pythian Apollo is overwhelmed with notes, many of which are frivolous and unnecessary. The poem itself is unworthy of the critical labour which has been bestowed upon it, though it contains some pleasing passages.

The poem which was written in honour of Mercury, has a stronger claim to commendation than the last-mentioned hymn; but of the notes by which it is elucidated, the mention of a few will be sufficient. In the 86th verse, we read—*αυλοτροπης φως*; which the annotator prefers to the other readings; but no manuscripts justify this freedom of alteration, though the passage be considered as deriving some benefit from the change. *Ερμης* (v. 145) is altered to *υιος*; not, however, on such grounds as will remove the doubts of every scholar. That which is the 412th line in other editions—

ῥεῖα τε καὶ πασησιν, &c.—

is not only altered, but transposed; and it cannot, we think, be denied, that the professor's boldness, on this occasion, is well supported. The words *εγω παιδ' αφνειον* (v. 473) are changed into *εγωγε ταδ' αιφνειος*, though the learned Ernesti has patronised the established reading. Martin has applied his conjectural talents to this passage; but M. Ilgen seems to have been more happy in his proposed emendation.

The next piece is the Hymn to Venus. The notes upon this poem are not curious or interesting; but those which accompany the Hymn to Ceres are more important. Some of our readers may recollect that this piece was accidentally discovered at Moscow after the middle of the present century. The professor concludes that it is not the same production with that which Pausanias mentions as one of the hymns of Homer, but that it was composed in imitation of the hymns of that poet, of Pamphus, and Musæus, dedicated to the same goddess.

For *ελαιαι* (Hymn. in Cererem, v. 23), we find *ἑταιραι*; and Lucas, an English translator of the poem, is quoted, not with approbation, but with a view of exploding his sense of the passage, which he thus renders:

'Alas! nor god nor man would hear her cry;
Whilst ev'n the grove itself denies reply.'

This sense may be defended; but we are inclined to prefer *ἑταιραι*, as more suitable to the context; nor will the epithet *αγλαοκαρποι* be inapplicable to female companions; for, though, when coupled with *ελαιαι*, it signifies *having fine fruit*, it will also express the idea of having fair arms or hands.

In a note of considerable length, the change of *Παρθενω*

ΦΡΕΑΤΙ into παρ θειω φρεατι (v. 99) is vindicated in a satisfactory manner; but it appears, that M. Ugen would have inserted παρ ξενιω φρεατι, had not Wolff recommended to him, by letter, the emendation which he has incorporated with the text. The deficiency of a foot, in the 345th line, is well supplied; but we cannot give the same praise to all the insertions which the professor has ventured to make in a series of imperfect lines (from 387 to 395). He maintains the propriety of retaining various lines which other editors wish to expunge; and, with equal freedom, he brands some which they wish to preserve.

Of the pieces which follow, and their critical appendages, it is unnecessary to treat. We shall therefore conclude our remarks by representing this edition as not unworthy of the public favour.

Exposition du Systême du Monde, par Pierre Simon La Place, de l'Institut National de France, et du Bureau des Longitudes. Paris.

Exposition of the System of the World, by P. S. La Place, Member of the National Institution of France, and of the Board of Longitude: 2 vols. 8vo. 10s. 6d. sewed. Imported by De Boffe. 1796.

THE government of France seems to be desirous of founding its greatness, not on the energy of its warriors only, but on the improvement of the arts and sciences,—on the advancement of every thing which can tend to relieve the wants or contribute to the embellishments of social life. Hence artists, men of letters, and men of science, are no longer considered as the instruments of vain frivolity, to languish in a corner the moment they have gratified the trifling ends of their employers,—to be thrown aside, as a celebrated monarch expressed it, ‘when the orange was squeezed:’ they are now brought forward, and held up to public view as objects of public gratitude and public encouragement. What will be the effect of this new order of things, if it should continue, time only can discover: yet the probability is, that, where the talents of the mind are held in estimation, a more general desire of possessing them will be instilled into the rising generation; knowledge will be more generally diffused; and we anxiously wish that it may be accompanied by virtue and happiness.

La Place, the author of the work before us, was known before the revolution as a celebrated astronomer: he is now a member of the national institution and of the board of longitude. No one could be pitched upon, better qualified for the
task

task which he has undertaken: for, with a profound knowledge of the subject, he possesses that ease in communicating his sentiments, for which the French have ever been distinguished. He is to explain the system of the world. To understand an exposition contained in two small volumes, it is evident that some previous mathematical knowledge is requisite: and to persons who have gone through their first course of studies, this work, as calculated to revive and consolidate their astronomical knowledge, may be particularly recommended. It is divided into five books, and each book into small chapters. The subjects of the books are—1. The apparent Motions of the heavenly Bodies.—2. The real Motions of the heavenly Bodies.—3. The Laws of Motion.—4. The Theory of universal Gravity.—5. Sketch of the History of Astronomy. Independent of the great talents of the writer, the work, as the first of the kind according to the new arrangement in measures, becomes an object of curiosity.

The quadrant is divided into 100 degrees; the degree into 100 minutes; the minute into 100 seconds, and so on. The day is divided into 10 hours; the hour into 100 minutes; the minutes into 100 seconds. The thermometer is divided into 100 degrees, reckoning from the freezing to the boiling points. The account given by our author, of the change in the calendar, will be acceptable to most of our readers.

‘ The wants of society have given rise to different periods for measuring the parts of duration. Nature presents two remarkable ones in the return of the sun to the meridian and to the same equinox: but both must be divided into smaller periods. The division of the day into 10 hours, of the hour into 100 minutes, of the minute into 100 seconds, &c. is the most simple: it is natural that the astronomical day should commence at midnight, to comprehend in its duration all the time that the sun is above the horizon.

‘ The origin of the year is properly fixed at the vernal equinox, at the renewal of nature. The seasons divide it into four parts, each subdivided into three parts, of thirty days. Each month partakes of another division into three periods of ten days each, called decades. In this manner the civil year would be compounded only of 360 days: but we have seen that it exceeds 365 days; and it is necessary to add, under the name of complementary, the exceeding days. Although, according to this mode of dividing the year, the order of things relative to the days of the decade is a little disturbed by the complementary days, the correspondence of the days of the decade with the days of the month, and that of the decadary feasts with the seasons, make this mode preferable to the use of small periods independent of months, such as weeks.

‘ If 365 days were fixed upon for the length of the year, its commencement would constantly anticipate that of the tropical year; and the months, by a retrograde motion, would run through all the seasons in a period of about 1520 years. This method, in use formerly in Egypt, takes away from the calendar the advantage of attaching the months and the feasts to the same seasons, and of making in them any remarkable epochs for agriculture. This valuable advantage would be preserved to the inhabitants of the country by considering the origin of the year as an astronomical phenomenon, to be determined, by observation and calculation, to the midnight preceding the true spring equinox; but then the years would lose the advantage of being regular periods of time, easy to resolve into days; and thus confusion would be spread over history and chronology; and the origin of the year, which should always be previously known, would be sometimes rendered uncertain. To obviate these inconveniences, and to attach to the same seasons both months and feasts, intercalations have been invented. Of these the most simple is that adopted by the Persians in the eleventh century, which consists in adding seven times together six complementary days instead of five every four years, and in omitting this addition the eighth time till the fifth year. The years thus increased are called Sextile, to distinguish them from common years. According to this mode of intercalation, there are, in every thirty-three years, eight sextile, and twenty-five common years, the length of the year being estimated at $365\frac{8}{33}$ days, or $\frac{1}{1000202}$ part of a day greater than the tropical year by modern observations; and hence, not till after a long series of years will the origin of the year be removed from the equinox in a degree perceptible to the agriculturist.

‘ It is to be desired that all nations would adopt the same æra, independent of moral revolutions, and founded upon astronomical phænomena alone. Its origin might be fixed in the year when the apogee of the solar orbit coincides with the summer solstice, or in the year 1250. For this origin, the instant of the mean spring equinox might be taken, which in that year was on the fifteenth of March, at 5,3676 hours at Paris. The universal meridian, to which the origin of terrestrial longitude should be fixed, might be that, where it was midnight at this instant, which is to the east of Paris about $185^{\circ}, 2960$. If after a long series of ages the origin of this æra should become uncertain, it would be difficult to find it with precision by the motion only of the apogee, which is both slow and irregular: but there will be no doubt on this origin, and on the position of the earthly meridian, if it is remembered, that, at the moment of the mean equinox, the mean longitude

gitude of the moon was $143^{\circ}, 7714$. Thus every thing arbitrary would disappear in the origin of time, and terrestrial longitude; and by adopting afterwards the intercalation of the preceding division of the year and that of the month and day, the most natural and simple calendar might be formed for the inhabitants of this side of the equator.'

On the subject of measuring a degree on the earth's surface, is introduced a hint which may be useful to the persons now superintending the survey of our own island. 'From the principal places of France to the line which is considered as the meridian of the observatory, have been raised curves, drawn in the same manner as this line, with this difference, that the first side, which is a tangent always to the surface, instead of being parallel, is perpendicular to the plane of the celestial meridian of the observatory at Paris. By the length of these curves, and by the distance of the observatory from the points where they meet the meridian, the positions of these places have been determined. This is the most useful undertaking in geography; and it is a model which every enlightened nation will, without doubt, adopt with eagerness.'

The change in the weights and measures of France naturally found a place in this work: our readers will determine whether our philosopher's notions are well founded. 'We cannot see the prodigious number of measures in use, not only by different nations but even by the same people, the fantastical divisions inconvenient for calculation, the difficulty of knowing and comparing them, in short the confusion and fraud which prevails from it in trade, without considering both science and government as most usefully employed towards mankind, by adopting a system of measures, whose uniform divisions make them easy for calculation, and which are founded in the least arbitrary manner on a measure indicated by nature itself. A people, who should adopt such a system of measures, would unite to the advantage of reaping the first fruits of their division, that of seeing their example followed by other nations to whom they thus become benefactors. For the empire of reason, though slow, is irresistible, and, in the end, will overcome all national jealousies, and all the obstacles, which are opposed to general utility, when well understood. By such motives the constituent assembly was induced to employ upon this important object the academy of sciences. The new system of weights and measures results from the labours of these commissioners, assisted by the zeal and information of several members of the national representation.

'From the mode of calculating by decimal numbers, as by whole numbers, being the same, there could be no doubt of the advantages

advantages attending a division of all sorts of measures into decimal parts: for complete conviction, it is necessary only to compare the difficulty of complex multiplications and divisions, with the ease of performing the same operations by whole numbers, which is rendered still greater by means of logarithms, whose use may, by simple and cheap instruments, be rendered extremely popular. The decimal division was therefore adopted without hesitation: and to give uniformity to the whole system of measures, it was resolved to derive them all from one linear measure and its decimal divisions. Thus the question was reduced to the choice of this universal measure, to which the name of metre was given.'

Our author proceeds to state the difficulties in settling this metre, and the grounds on which they determined to take the measure of a fourth part of the meridian, and the 10000000 part of this length for their universal measure. So that the metre is now 3,079458 feet of the former standard. This new standard is placed under the care of the legislative body; and such precautions have been taken by comparing it with pendulums, that any error owing to accidental or natural causes may be easily rectified.

We shall make one extract to show the author's method of explaining the more abstruse parts of his science. In the following manner he proves that the moon is attracted to the earth by the force of gravity.

'The force, which draws the moon every instant from the tangent to its orbit, makes it describe, in a second, a space equal to the versè sine of the arc which it describes in the same time; since the sine is the quantity by which the moon at the end of the second is distant from the line it was in at the beginning. This may be determined by the distance of the moon from the earth, which the lunar parallax gives in parts of the earth's semidiameter: but to have a result independent of the inequalities of the moon's motion, we must take for its mean parallax, the part of that parallax which is independent of these irregularities. This part, relative to the radius drawn from the centre of gravity of the earth to its surface on the parallel, the square of whose sine of latitude is $\frac{1}{3}$, is equal, according to observations, to 10556". We chose this parallel, because the attraction of the earth on the corresponding points of its surface is very nearly, as at the distance of the moon, equal to the quantity of matter of the earth, divided by the square of the distance of its centre of gravity. The radius drawn from a point of this parallel, to the centre of gravity of the earth, is 19614648 feet: whence it is easy to conclude that the force which draws the moon towards the earth,

makes it fall through 0,00312808 feet in a second. It will be seen afterwards, that the action of the sun diminishes this force by its 358th part: we must therefore increase by this quantity the preceding number, to render it independent of the sun; and then it becomes 0,00313682 feet. But in the relative motion of the moon around the earth, she is urged by a force equal to the sum of the quantities of matter in the earth and moon, divided by the square of their distance from each other: thus, to have the height whence the moon should fall in a second by the action alone of the earth, we must diminish the preceding space in the proportion of the quantity of matter in the earth, to the sum of the quantities of matter in the earth and moon; now from the doctrine of the tides, the quantity of matter in the moon is found to be $\frac{1}{81.7}$ of that of the earth: by multiplying therefore this space by $\frac{80}{81.7}$, we shall have 0,00308428 feet for the space which the moon falls through in a second by the force of gravity.

‘ Let us compare this space with that which results from observations by the pendulum. On the parallel we are considering, the length of a pendulum for seconds is, according to the 12th chapter of the first book, equal to 2,280923 feet, which gives 11,25591 for the space fallen through by a body from rest in a second by the force of gravity. But on this parallel the attraction of the earth is smaller than gravity by two thirds of the centrifugal force, owing to the rotatory motion of the equator; and this latter force is $\frac{1}{285}$ of gravity: we must, therefore, augment the preceding space by its 432d part, to have the space due to the action alone of the earth, which, on this parallel, is equal to its quantity of matter divided by its radius; we shall thus have 11,28196 feet for this space. At the distance of the moon, this ought to be diminished in the proportion of the square of the radius of the earth, to the square of the moon's distance; and to do that, we need only multiply it by the square of the tangent of the lunar parallax, or by 10556; we shall, therefore, have 0,00310187 feet for the space which the moon ought to fall through in a second from the attraction of the earth. This space, given by experiments on pendulums, differs little from that which results from the direct observation of the parallax: and to make them coincide, we need only diminish by 20" the lunar parallax, and thus reduce it to 10536". Such is then the parallax resulting from the theory of gravity, which differs only by $\frac{1}{432}$ th part from the parallax by observation, to which indeed I think it preferable, considering the exactness of the elements by which it was determined. We might suppose

pose the quantity of matter in the moon, equal to $\frac{1}{50}$ th of that of the earth, as given by the quantity of nutation determined by Bradley, to have by the theory of gravity the same parallax as by observation; but all the phenomena of tides concur in giving this satellite a more considerable quantity of matter, and near to that of which we have made use. However the little difference in the two parallaxes is within the limits of errors by observations and elements employed in calculation: and it is certain, therefore, that the principal force which retains the moon in its orbit is the force of gravity in the earth varying inversely as the square of the distance. Thus the law of the diminution of gravity, which, in planets attended by several satellites, has been proved by the comparison of their revolutions and their distances, is demonstrated for the moon by the comparison of its motion with that of projectiles at the surface of the earth. The observations made by pendulums on the tops of mountains had previously indicated this diminution in earthly gravity: but they were insufficient to discover the law on account of the small height of the most elevated mountains, compared with the radius of the earth: a body at a distance from us, like the moon, was requisite to make this law very sensible, and to convince us that weight on the earth is only one particular case of the force expanded through the universe.'

In the last book is given a concise but elegant sketch of the history of astronomy, in which the author intermixes sentiments which do honour both to his head and his heart: The fate of Bailly naturally occurred to his mind, when he was writing on the Hindoo tables. 'I differ here,' says he, 'with regret, from the opinion of an illustrious philosopher, who, after having honoured his career in life by labours useful to the sciences and to humanity, died a victim to the most bloody tyranny, and in death opposed the calm fortitude and dignity of a just man to the insults of an abused people, which cruelly prolonged the preparations of his execution.' The concluding remark on Ptolemy is very just—'The reputation of Ptolemy has been exposed to a similar fate with that of Aristotle and Descartes. Their errors were no sooner ascertained, than to a blind admiration succeeded unjustifiable contempt: for, even in the sciences, the most useful revolutions have not been exempt from passion and injustice.' After the praises bestowed on Newton, no Englishman can blame the following remark: or if he does, we should like to hear his proofs in opposition to it. 'In justice to France, we must observe, that, if England has had the advantage of giving rise to the discovery of universal gravity, the numerous developements

ments of this discovery, and the revolution produced by it in astronomy, are chiefly owing to the French geometricians, and to the encouragement of the academy of sciences.'

The work is thus concluded—'Astronomy, taken in its full extent, is the finest monument of the human mind, the most noble title of the understanding. Seduced by the illusions of sense and self-love, man regarded himself a long time as the centre of the heavenly motions; and his pride was punished by the vain fears which they inspired. After many ages of labour, the veil which covered the system of the world was torn aside. Then man saw himself on a little planet, almost imperceptible in the vast expanse of the solar system, which itself was only an insensible point in the immensity of space. The sublime results, to which this discovery conducted him, are very proper to console him for the little room assigned to him in the universe. Let us preserve anxiously, let us even augment, the deposit of this sublime science,—the delight of every thinking being. It has rendered important services to navigation and to geography: but the greatest benefit conferred by it on mankind is the expulsion of the fears occasioned by extraordinary celestial phenomena, and the destruction of errors arising from the ignorance of our true relation to nature—errors so much the more hurtful as social order ought to repose only upon this relation.—**TRUTH,—JUSTICE**—these are its immutable laws. Away with that dangerous maxim, that it is sometimes useful to swerve from them, to deceive and enslave men for the insuring of their happiness! Cruel experience has proved in all times, that these sacred laws can never be violated with impunity.'—A translation of this work is, we understand, undertaken: and if it is faithful to the original, we doubt not that it will be highly acceptable to the English reader.

*Mémoires Historiques et Politiques sur la République de Venise.
Rédigés en 1792.*

Historical and Political Memoirs of the Venetian Republic, compiled in 1792. 2 Vols. 8vo. 6s. sewed. Imported by De Boffe. 1795.

WHATEVER has the appearance of mystery, seldom fails to excite the curious attention of mankind; and hence, perhaps, the chief and natural cause of the anxiety with which politicians have endeavoured to develop the secret springs and movements of the Venetian government.

More prominent and useful motives must, however, in justice be attributed to those writers whose accuracy and philosophy

lofophic talents have delineated the anatomy, or have given body and animation to the skeletons, of government and law. The claffical correctnefs of Vertot, and the profound yet lively genius of Montesquieu, could not in their time be more refpectably employed than in describing the hiftory and politics of a ftate, whose humble origin, fubfequent opulence, and long political exiftence, are equally the objects of wonder and fpeculation.

But the ftate fecrets and domeftic hiftory of Venice are *now* degraded, in the view of utility and even of curiofity, to a degree of fpeculative infignificance, fimilar to the humiliating predicament to which, by the league of Cambray, the relative political importance of the Venetians to Europe was practically reduced. The great and rapid events that for feveral years paff have affected the various governments of Europe,—the flame of innovation that has fiercely blazed on the notions and the habits of many centuries,—and the ftupendous confequences that ftill are poifed in the doubtful fcale of political and moral futurity,—give no opportunity for meaner objects to excite the aftonifhment and inquiry of the human mind.

The intereft likely to be excited by thefe memoirs, cannot therefore be very confiderable; they, however, deferve fome attention from the circumftance of being written by a Venetian nobleman, who of courfe had a fhare in the government of the ftate; the machinery and principles of which are laid open and difcuffed.

The firft volume is occupied by a very minute, tedious, and embarrassed account of the different functions and arrangements of the Venetian government: the particulars of information on thefe topics are too diffufe to admit of an abftract; nor do we believe, that, if more eafily to be done, it would produce any gratification to our readers. In the fecond volume, the author enters into the more material part of his fubject, and defcants on the theoretical perfections, together with the private cabals and abufes, of the government. We fhall give one extract, preferring it for thofe traits of political analogy which the moft general reader will not fail to difcover.

‘The fenate adopts two methods equally irregular, and hurtful to the public good, to diminifh the number of thofe who, among its own body, may be tempted to oppofe the propofals of its leaders: the one relates immediately to that of which I have juft fpeaken, and confifts in choofing the object—or to one of the employments I have fpecified; and whether he accepts or refufes it, the fenate is rid of his importunities
for

for that time: for, in both cases, he remains for that reason excluded from the senate, that is to say, if he accepts of it, during the whole time that his administration lasts, and likewise the period which precedes his entrance upon its functions; and also (a few employments excepted) during that which follows his return home, till he obtains a magisterial office which may open him once more a way to the senate; if he solicits an exemption, he must obtain it at the expense of a fatiguing series of humiliating formalities; and after a delay of some weeks, he may again obtain a situation which replaces him in the senate, where he passes through two elections, called the grand and lesser election. If he is rejected by the former, he pays a fine of 3000 ducats, and remains excluded from the senate as well as the grand council, for three years, during which time he can hold no public employment at home or abroad: if by the latter, he pays only 1000 ducats, and his exclusion lasts only a year. If, upon his readmission into the senate, he should commence his opposition anew, he soon brings on himself another nomination, which exposes him to the same inconveniencies as the former, till, wearied out by an useless struggle, he suffers things to go on according to the discretion of the seniors and their adherents. If their antagonist is too much favoured in the great council, so that the senate is afraid of the dissolution of the ballot, it has recourse to another method, which depending only on the votes of the senate, and being regarded, perhaps without reason, as degrading, produces the same effect. The senate, for this purpose, takes care to propose whoever it pleases for any of the senatorial magistracies when vacancies occur, associating along with him in the nomination some one of those who, by a prevailing abuse, have acquired a sort of right to fill them by turns, and at other times, even some respectable person, not omitting to add one of his relations, if he belongs to a numerous family, to create a division in his own party. The nominees are obliged, as we have seen in another place, to place themselves in the midst of the hall as their names are proclaimed, and to make a number of profound bows to all the senators, which, inconvenient as they are in all cases, are most ridiculous in this, because they are unattended with the least hope of success. Few men have sufficient firmness to act this ridiculous part for weeks—perhaps for months; and to terminate the scene, they relinquish their opposition, and obtain a magistracy. The individual exposed to this species of persecution is called the *Index* of the senate; and it is a very formidable part, though sometimes acted by the most zealous patriots. If at last the party in opposition prevails, and its leader is removed from the persecution of the *wisemen*,

by obtaining a situation in which he has magnanimity enough to despise their vengeance and to serve his country, recourse must be had to the last expedient, which is, to undermine his virtue, and tempt either his ambition or avarice, according as he is under the domination of either of those passions: and often, from a respectable and formidable opponent, he becomes the vile tool to the irregular conduct of the seniors, who give him a share of their profits, or procure for him the most distinguished employments, by a policy similar to that which the ministry in London uses to get rid of a formidable member of opposition. The whole nation will bear testimony to this, except a small number of *grandeos* interested in keeping up this infamous disorder: and I call upon the yet uncorrupted vigilance of some of the public institutions of Venice to unite their efforts for the purpose of extirpating such abominations, and to give to the partisans the useful power of watching over the lawful government, under the shadow of their respectable authority.'

For these and many other abuses, the author, after giving his reflections, proposes certain remedies.—It must be observed, that this author states himself to be banished from his country by a party cabal; how such a circumstance may influence his feelings and remarks, the readers of his production will judge; we, however, in candour, cannot help intimating, that the exiled nobleman pointedly reprobates revolutions and all licentious innovation,—that he discovers much temper on the subject of his own misfortune, and appears indignant only when he animadverts on the corruptions and intrigues, which, as he asserts, disgrace the well-planned but badly-administered government of his country.

These memoirs are stated to have been first committed to paper in the Italian language, and afterwards confided by the author to a friend, to be translated into French.—The choice of this friend (at least for the purposes of literature) was highly injudicious; for the language of this translation is execrably bad; the translation frequently betrays a gross ignorance of the Italian; and the *errata*, with other faults, are scandalously numerous.

P. Terentii Afri Comædiæ sex. Recensuit, perpetuamque Annotationem et Latinitatis Indicem adjecit M. Benj. Frid. Schmieder, Gymnasii Halensis Luth. Rector. Halæ. 1794.

The six Comedies of Terence, revised and illustrated by Schmieder, 8vo. 6s. 6d. sewed. Imported by Escher. 1796.

THIS is not the first attempt of M. Schmieder to promote the study of Terence; for he previously published a German

man translation of the works of that pleasing dramatist, which met with a favourable reception. To facilitate the knowledge of the original, he has now given a new edition to the world, accompanied with useful annotations.

The work is introduced with an account of the different species of ancient comedy,—a life of Terence,—remarks on his metre,—and a statement of the subjects of his plays.—With regard to the number of editions with which his works have been honoured, we are informed that 40 made their successive appearance in the interval between the commencement of printing and the close of the fifteenth century; that about 170 came forth in the following century; and that 87 were printed in the seventeenth: but, of those which have appeared in the present age, the amount is not mentioned.

In the *Andria*, (act i. sc. 1. p. 38), *præponere* is substituted by our editor, for *præponens*, to preserve a continuity of construction; but this alteration, which is borrowed from the edition printed at Deux-ponts, is not justified by any manuscripts; and the ordinary reading is not wholly indefensible. He prefers *gaudeant* and *comparent* (act iv. sc. 1) for the singular number of those verbs; but the singular is evidently more accurate, though instances occur which give a sanction to the use of the plural, even in reference to *quisquam*.—In the *Eunuch* (act ii. sc. 2), he omits *aucupes*, for plausible, if not satisfactory, reasons. He explodes the conjecture of Dr. Bentley, who (act iii. sc. 2) recommends *abdomini hunc natum* for *ex homine hunc natum*; and, on his own authority, he introduces *ex nomine* into the text; an alteration which is liable to objection, though it is preferable to the suggestion of the English critic. In the comedy of the Self-Tormentor (act iii. sc. 1), we read, *dissolvi me ocius*, instead of *dissolvi me, otiosus*: the former is the better reading. In the same line, Madame Dacier considers *huic* as more proper than *tibi*; but the German editor rejects the alteration as inexpedient. The perplexed passage (ic. 4), which is variously understood, is thus given by him, as well as by Westerhoff: *Clinia orat, sibi uti nunc det illam, illi tamen post daturum: mille nummum poscit*. If all difficulties are not removed by this mode of exhibiting the speech of the servant, it is, at least, an improvement of the sense.

The illustrations of the three remaining plays furnish opportunities for the following remarks. The editor corrects the female critic already mentioned, for having represented Geta (*Adelph.* act iii. sc. 2) as intimating that he would willingly suffer any punishment, if he could obtain the gratification of revenge against those who had offended him. The animadversion is just; for the speaker refers to the punishment

which he would inflict, not to that which he would suffer.—The speech of Micio (act v. sc. 4), *non malim quidem!* is accompanied with a note, intimating the acceptation of *non malim* in the sense of *malim*: but this idea would be more regularly and effectually answered by separating the negative from *malim*, and considering it as the immediate reply to the question contained in the preceding speech. We do not see the necessity of altering *pateretur* (Phorm. act. iii. sc. 4) into *potiretur*. *Neque*, before the name of Antipho (sc. 5), is changed, on stronger grounds, into *æque*.—Bentley is censured by our commentator for the frivolous reasons which induced him to condemn this line as spurious,—*itaque adeo uno animo*, &c. (Hecyr. act. ii. sc. 1)—a verse which, though it involves some ambiguity of expression, ought not to be hastily exploded. But the critic whose freedom in this respect is most observable, is Guyet, who proposes the omission of long passages, and even whole scenes, in which any difficulties occur: he is therefore subjected to the lash of M. Schmieder, who accuses him of wishing to eject from the Terentian text every sentence which he does not understand. If all the passages which are not perfectly intelligible to every editor, should be expunged, the works of the ancients would be strangely mutilated and defaced.

Histoire Chronologique des Operations de l'Armée du Nord, et de celle de Sambre et Meuse. Depuis le Mois de Germinal de l'An II. (Fin de Mars 1794) jusqu'au même Mois de l'An III. (1795) Tirée des Livres d'Ordre de ces deux Armées. Par le Citoyen David, Temoin de la plupart de leurs Exploits. A Paris, et re-imprimé, se trouve chez J. De Boffe. 1796.

A History of the Campaigns of General Pichegru, containing the Operations of the Armies of the North, and of the Sambre and the Meuse, from March 1794 to March 1795; with Anecdotes of the Campaign, and Memoirs of Generals Pichegru, Jourdan, Moreau, Macdonald, Souham, Valetau, Devinther, Daendals, Salm, Bonneau, Jardon, Reunier, and Duverger. By Citizen David. Translated from the French. 8vo. 5s. sewed. Robinsons. 1796.

EVERY journal or document that can throw light on the history of the most important war in which Europe was ever engaged, must be accounted highly valuable; and however liable to suspicion the accounts written by the parties concerned may appear, it is only by diligently comparing them,

them, and judiciously weighing their respective assertions, that we can attain the only certainty of which military history is capable. The work before us appears, upon the whole, to be written with candour; there are exceptionable and suspicious passages, and there are boastful apostrophes and vaunting exclamations; but the truth is, in Pichegru's campaigns, there was much of which it was impossible for a Frenchman not to boast, and much which their enemies will find it difficult not to admire.

Citizen David, the author of this history, was one of those who took refuge in the army, to avoid the tyranny of the home-government, at a period when, he observes, France was devoured by an anarchy, of which no other nation ever afforded any example, when the administration of affairs was in the hands of men who were more depraved than Caligula, more ignorant and brutal than Claudius, and more cruel than Nero. After some remarks on this state of things, which are as severe as any Englishman could wish, he conjures posterity to suspend its detestation, and bestow execrations only on those who have deserved them. France, he asserts, still possessed virtuous men, who understood the principles of justice, and never departed from them; and even the convention, independent of its martyrs, contained men of probity, the enemies of tyranny and crimes. The state of the armies at this period was not less deplorable. The soldiery, like the other citizens, had their informers, their revolutionary tribunals, and their executioners. His picture of the army is sufficiently frightful: but we cannot help thinking that he has exaggerated it, that the merit of Pichegru and Richard may appear the greater in restoring discipline. Be this as it may, he hazards much in asserting that the committee of public safety were desirous that the French armies should be beaten. He instances, indeed, their dismissing of Jourdan at the moment in which he had driven the enemy from before Maubeuge, and saved the republic:—this, however, may have been the effect of ignorance, or of personal pique against Jourdan. Wicked as they were, their wickedness must have been bounded by self-preservation.

The arrival of general Pichegru, and Richard a representative of the people, formed the commencement of a new æra in the affairs of the army. These men soon paved the way for the most brilliant campaign. Pichegru's orders were simply *to conquer*. He received no plan: and these laconic orders were given at a time when the three best fortresses of the first line of the French fortifications were occupied by the enemy. From this period, citizen David begins his history, detailing the operations of each day, with occasional remarks. His

mode, he tells us, was, in visiting the field of battle, to examine the French dispositions and those of the enemy, of which he carefully preserved minutes. When at a loss to comprehend any of the movements of the troops, Pichegru, Reunier, and other general officers, gratified his curiosity by an explanation of the motives of each manœuvre; and from the knowledge of affairs which he acquired on the spot, he has reason to inform his readers that they cannot be too careful how they receive the accounts of the French journalists, or even the reports of the convention.

Pichegru's first plan was an invasion of Flanders, to make a strong diversion, and remove the enemy from the theatre of their successes, while he acted powerfully on their centre. The first consequences of this plan were the taking of Courtray, the battle of Moëscroen, the taking of Menin by the French, and of Landrecies by the Austrians. After these advantages and checks, Pichegru deviated from his original plan of acting only against the centre of the enemy, and determined to make vigorous attacks on their wings, without attempting the recovery of Landrecies. In chapters 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th, we have an unparalleled display of his skill and success in conducting this plan, evinced in the battle of Courtray, the reduction of Thuin, Fontaine l'Eveque, and Binch; the defeat of the English army at Larmoy, Turcoing, &c. the retreat of Clairfait to Thielt; the action at Pont-Achin, the passage of the Sambre, the taking of Ypres, and the other actions which preceded the entrance of the French into Bruges, Ostend, and Ghent, and the taking of Oudenarde and Tournay. On Oudenarde we find this remark—

“ Oudenarde surrendered on the 15th of Messidor (July 3); and on the evening of the same day, Tournay was evacuated by the enemy. Thus, in one day, Ghent, Oudenarde and Tournay, fell into the hands of the French. It was not by spilling oceans of blood before these places, that they were reduced: it was by beating the enemy in the open field, and by a combination of movements that made the resistance of these towns hopeless. This campaign is sufficient to convince persons who would study military affairs, of the error of the old tactics, which commenced by filling the trenches of the enemy's strong places with the carcases of the bravest of the troops. A strong town is impregnable while it is covered by an unbroken army; but no fortress can hold out, when the army by which it was defended is driven from the field. The re-taking of Valenciennes, le Quesnoy, Condé, and Landrecies, by the French, affords proofs of this proposition. Pichegru never besieged a place that was not necessary to secure the

the position of his army ; yet, on this principle, he made greater progress in the enemy's country than the generals who preceded him.' P. 46.

In chapter VIII. we find some remarks on the decree of the convention forbidding the French troops to make English or Hanoverian prisoners, which required to be noticed. Recurring again to his opinion that the Jacobins played into the hands of the British ministry, he now more than insinuates that the law ordaining the imprisonment and confiscation of the property of the English resident in France, and the decree against taking English and Hanoverian prisoners, were obtained by the intrigues of the English minister, that the people of England might be thereby more inflamed against the French, and become more cordially parties in the war. All this appears to us unfounded ; the speech of Barrere sufficiently accounts for the latter decree passing, without the necessity of supposing an indirect impulse from this quarter. His other remarks, however, are too just to be omitted—

‘ The atrocious decree of which we are speaking, was at once impolitic and subversive of all the laws of war. It was impolitic, because the enemy is more annoyed by the making of a great many prisoners, than by the destruction of a small number of the troops : but those who are experienced in war know, that less time is in general consumed in making two or three thousand prisoners, than in the massacre of one hundred men. This decree could not fail to exasperate the troops against whom it was directed ; but military prudence forbids us to reduce the enemy to despair. In a word, this law tended to diminish the courage, and to debase the minds of our soldiery.

‘ This decree was equally unjust. War, in the midst of its calamities, has its principles of law and humanity, and wretched is the nation by which these are contemned and violated. War is not a natural relation existing between man and man, but a relation between one government and another. While a soldier is armed, he is the enemy of the soldier of the adverse party. But having thrown down his arms, he returns to his natural situation ; and he into whose power he falls, owes to him all that humanity demands for the unfortunate. The savages slay their prisoners and devour them : men who are partially civilized, but in this respect more savage still, make slaves of their enemies : but a free people make prisoners of them, and treat them with kindness.

‘ It is fortunate that governments have not always the power of rendering the people as unjust and ferocious as themselves. The decree in question had little effect on the

French troops. A reconnoitring party, on the 4th of Messidor (June 22), pushed from Wakem to the gates of Ghent, and took a considerable number of Hanoverian prisoners, who were conducted to Wilbek, which was the head-quarters of general Souham. An officer of the état-major happened to see them arrive, and said to the sergeant of the party,—“ This is an embarrassing affair, comrade : I wish you had left those men where you found them.” The sergeant replied—“ General, there are just so many less of the enemy.” “ You are right,” said the officer, “ but a barbarous law exists against those poor men.”—“ We know it well,” replied the brave soldier fiercely ; “ but the convention will not pretend to make executioners of the republican soldiery ! Send the prisoners to the representatives of the people : if these men must die, let their hands be steeped in their blood !”

‘ There were others who had not the courage of this gallant soldier. A general of brigade, through the fear of being dismissed, caused several Hanoverian prisoners to be shot ; and it has been said, that another general put one to death with his own hand. I forbear to name them : but if, during the remainder of their lives, they should experience an hour of returning sensibility, they will be sufficiently punished. It is a subject of consolation, that this barbarous law was almost universally resisted by the army of the north.

‘ The decree which denied quarter to the garrisons of the French towns in the hands of the enemy was of the same nature as that we have been considering. It was calculated to drive these troops to a desperate defence, which might have cost us an infinite number of men : beside, we then occupied all the strong places of Belgium, and had the emperor adopted the same policy, and we had afterward been unsuccessful, our brave troops would have been reduced to the alternative of being executed in France for cowardice, or put to the sword in the fortresses of Flanders.

‘ Under such destructive policy, how did men expect to find soldiers ? Every good citizen will die for his country, when it is necessary ; but it is more desirable to live for the purpose of serving her ; and no man is called upon to throw away his life without utility. In fact, the absurdity of these two last decrees inclined some who were spectators of the affairs of France to believe, that those who then governed us, embarrassed with the controul of so many millions of brave men, were desirous of depopulating the country.

‘ The commandant of le Quesnoy gave a fine lesson to those who summoned him to surrender on this occasion. He coolly replied—“ No nation has a right to command another to dishonour itself.” P. 54.

The care which the principal French generals took to avoid the execution of the last-mentioned decree, does them immortal honour. The reader will find a pleasing account of their virtuous struggles in the cause of humanity, in chapters IX. X. and XI. Speaking of the convention which made this decree, David remarks that—

‘ It would betray an ignorance of human nature to suppose that every man who participated in these acts was fortified with an obdurate heart. But will that be an excuse for them? Pusillanimity, in times of revolution, is as destructive to true liberty, as ambition and inordinate passion: and that which was so aptly called *the belly* of the convention, has been the cause of as deep injuries to the nation, by its cowardice, as all the liberticide factions with which France has been agitated. Richard, Pichegru, Moreau, and the greater part of the generals in the army of the north, chose rather to incur the risk of their lives than to deviate, in a single instance, from the laws of war. Robespierre denounced these patriots, in the tribune, on the 8th Thermidor (July 26):’ but his own fall prevented the nation from being disgraced by their deaths.

Of Moreau we have this remarkable anecdote, that the very day he entered the almost impregnable fort of Sluys, one of the boldest enterprises of the campaign, his aged father fell under the stroke of the guillotine.

‘ It was long before Moreau was apprized of this event. When it was made known to him, despair so wholly possessed his mind, that it has been said he would have quitted the territory of the republic from horror, had he not been deterred by the healing counsels of his friends. The character of the son at length yielded to that of the citizen; and he continues to serve with fidelity and success a country that assassinated his parent.’ P. 73.

David relates a similar anecdote of Tassin, a captain in the 9th regiment of hussars.

Omitting the detail of the proceedings of the army, we shall only observe, that in chap. XV. we have an impartial account of the tyranny exerted in the Netherlands by the French commissioners, or proconsuls, as David always calls them. This is followed by an explanation of the military principles of general Pichegru, an article highly interesting to military men, and especially to those old and experienced officers who had to contend with him. His system (and it appears to have been generally followed since by his successors) consisted in acting incessantly upon the offensive; in pressing the enemy
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without affording them opportunity of repairing disasters; in seeking occasions to engage, and planning movements to compel the enemy to fight; and in concentrating the armies in the field, and never sitting down before a strong place, the possession of which was not absolutely necessary to the security of his further operations. From his success, it appears that there was something in the situation of the French army at this time, and something in the French character, with which this system exactly corresponded. At the beginning of the campaign, the king of Prussia testified his esteem for it, by writing in these terms to the emperor. 'It will be impossible to cover your territories from invasion. The French have armies that are daily renewing; and it is not to be disguised, that their generals pursue an incomparable plan of operations, which disconcerts and defeats all our projects.'

The whole of this work does not yield a more striking instance of impartiality than the following—

'In the official reports of the representatives, relative to the surrender of Nimeguen, they stated that the enemy were induced to evacuate the place by the taking of fort Scheneck, which opened to us the passage of the Waal. These ignorant men were not informed that this fort is no longer, as formerly, on the right bank of the Rhine. They did not know that, during a flood, this river changed its bed in this place; and that the ruins of the fort are at present on the left bank, and are of no importance. But provided they treated, in their reports, the enemy as cowards and slaves, and made a sufficient number of those slaves bite the dust, and that this slaughter was effected with the loss of no more than two or three republicans, the report was made in due order, and was perfectly well received.

'These ridiculous phrases, however, had better given place to exact details. To avoid contempt, it would have been well for our proconsuls to have visited the spot, concerning which they had to make their report. But they affected to be infallible; and this presumption led them into a great many absurdities which gave infinite diversion to the armies.'

P. 137.

In the subsequent chapter are some remarks on the want of concert among the allies, to which this author, as well as all other writers, attributes much of the success of the French. He expresses the gratitude of the French nation to the duke of York in a strain of irony, as having detached himself from his allies, and afforded the French an opportunity of defeating him separately, which opened the way to their future successes. In his *Observations on the Political and Geographical Situation*

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of Holland, he gives a just character of the inhabitants, and a correct though brief account of their commercial relations, which is followed by a detail of the events which led to the surrender of the United Provinces to the power of France, the evacuation of the English, &c. and that singular fact of the horse and light artillery marching into North Holland over the ice, and seizing the Dutch ships of war. As the Hollanders do not possess a single port into which their men of war can enter armed and rigged, they are obliged to leave them at the entrance of the Zuyderzee, in a narrow arm of the sea, which lies between the north point of West Friesland and the Texel. This strait freezes almost as readily and as frequently as the rivers; and here the extraordinary spectacle was seen of a fleet taken by horsemen.

These details are followed by the author's reflections on the incredible successes of the French in the present war, anecdotes of the campaign, and characters of the generals, in which the reader will find a considerable portion of amusement and information. With the reserve already hinted at, we think this work will be highly valuable to future historians: but it gives us pain to find that in this, as in most other works even of the most impartial French writers, the character and intentions of the people of England are so unhappily confounded with the ignorance, misconduct, and intrigues of the authors of the war, as to create a rancour which will not be easily dispelled, and which, being returned in kind, must perpetuate enmity between the two nations.

In our extracts from this work, we have chiefly followed the translation published by Messrs. Robinson, which transfuses the *manière* of French republican writing pretty successfully.

De la Médecine opératoire, ou Traité Elémentaire des Opérations de la Chirurgie, avec des Planches en Taille-douce. Par Pierre Lassus, Professeur à l'Ecole de Santé de Paris. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris.

Operative Medicine; or an Elementary Treatise on the Operations of Surgery, illustrated with Plates. By Peter Lassus, Professor in the School of Health at Paris. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Sewed. Imported by De Boffe. 1796.

IN our own country, surgery has of late years been enriched by many valuable improvements; and on the continent its progress does not appear to have been less rapid, or less marked

ed by the utility of the additions which have been made to it. An attempt, therefore, to collect into a more clear point of view, and to describe with accuracy and precision, the different steps and circumstances which are necessary to be attended to in the operative part of the profession of the surgeon, cannot be altogether useless.

The present work of professor Lassus is of this kind, and seems to be executed in a manner that must be serviceable to young practitioners. It is not indeed a complete or perfect treatise on the department of surgery to which it particularly relates; but so far as the author has gone, the subjects appear to have been examined with attention, and to be described in so easy and familiar a way, that it cannot be difficult for even the tyro to comprehend them. By thus rendering the principles of the art more plain and obvious, at least one advantage will be gained,—its acquisition and improvement must be more expeditious and certain.

The professor sets out by considering the means of curing fresh wounds; and his observations on them are useful and interesting. He differs in some points from the more early writers on this subject. He thinks that the bloody *suture*, which has been recommended in most wounds, but especially in deep or transverse ones, is generally unnecessary, and that it frequently does harm. Recent wounds, in general, he says, may be cured most conveniently by means of adhesive plaister applied so as to keep their lips in union. For this purpose the author, however, prefers silk spread over with isinglass, to the plaister commonly employed, as not causing so much irritation or inflammation of the skin, in the part to which it is applied.

On wounds of the abdomen, the remarks of the author are also judicious; and he seems to be equally averse to the use of the needle in cases of this kind, as in those on other parts of the body. The directions for the management of the patients in such situations are well conceived: and the whole is rendered extremely clear and intelligible by the cases which the author has occasionally introduced.

The description of the operation of tapping is sufficiently accurate, and the particular circumstances attending it are treated with much clearness; but we have observed nothing that has not been long well understood, in the very long account which the author has given of it. He indeed disregards a bandage in these cases: but we think that though the professor may not be in the habit of using a bandage after this operation, it is extremely useful in general, and in many cases indispensably necessary.

The observations on the dropfy of the ovarium are not important.

In the fourth chapter the author treats of the cæsarian operation, the section of the symphysis pubis, and the rupture of the uterus. The different modes of performing the first, when it may be found necessary, which we think will be very seldom, are detailed with perspicuity and correctness. On the second the professor is not so full: he considers it as an operation from which little advantage is to be expected. This is, we believe, now the general opinion of obstetric practitioners. The last is considered as an accident that occurs more frequently than has been commonly supposed. The directions which are laid down for the management of the patient in cases of this nature, are judicious and proper, though they do not contain much novelty of information.

In treating of different kinds of *hernia*, the author has occupied a considerable portion of the first volume. They are accidents that occur so very frequently, that it was probably necessary to give a full description of them: and in an elementary work of this kind they cannot fail of being useful, by presenting to the mind of the young surgeon correct and determinate ideas of their nature, and the methods of managing them which have been attended with the greatest success. Professor Lassus has not indeed made any considerable additions to the practical directions contained in books of surgery on these subjects; but he has furnished the reader with what has been done respecting them in a neat and convenient manner. What this writer terms the *ischiatric hernia*, is, we believe, very rare, and but little known. Papen has described a case of this kind under the name of dorsal hernia; and our author has met with one instance of this complaint, which was in a woman about thirty years of age. The tumor in this case was on the right side. It was of an oblong form, indolent, without altering the colour of the skin, of nearly the size of the fist, and which, from its softness and its not being easily reducible, might have been mistaken, he says, *pour un lipome*. The hernia in this case, we are told, was gradually cured by keeping the patient for some time to bed, lying on her left side, and by the application of a proper compress and bandage.

The fifteenth and sixteenth chapters of the first volume are on the use of the catheter, the introduction of the sound, and the manner of puncturing the bladder in cases of suppression of urine. The remaining chapters contain an account of the stone in the bladder, and of the different modes of operating for it,—of the accidents which attend them,—and also of the
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means of removing stones from the urethra. Each of these heads is treated in a manner that must be useful to those engaged in the cultivation of the art of surgery, though they will not furnish them with much matter that can be considered as new.

The second volume commences with an account of the different species of hydrocele. There the author differs in no very material respect from the generality of writers on this subject. His expectations from the use of *vinous injections* do not indeed appear to be so sanguine as those of our countryman Mr. Earle, who has lately treated on that method of cure. The conclusions which the professor has made on the different modes of treatment, are these—

‘ From the whole these conclusions may be drawn. 1st. that when the hydrocele is in a pure and uncomplicated state, the *vinous injection* will generally produce a radical cure, and is preferable to the other means of cure; being shorter and less painful. 2d. But that when the disease is complicated with a hardness or ulceration of the vaginal coat of the testicle; when the liquor which it contains is thick, puriform, or bloody; and when hydatides are present, the method by incision should be had recourse to in preference to that by caustic or by seton.’

From the whole it would however seem that professor Lassus is not well acquainted with the improvements which have lately been made in the treatment of this complaint.

The observations on the diseases of the testicles, and the means of removing them, as well as those of the penis, are useful, but contain nothing but what is to be found in almost every treatise on surgery.

On the fistula in ano, the author is more full. He begins by tracing the causes of the disease, and stating the particular circumstances which occur in its progress. After this the different modes of cure that have been in use are described. The author chiefly advises the cure to be attempted, in these cases, either by ligature or incision. There are, however, many objections to the first; while, by simply laying open the sinuses, the disease may in general be removed with the greatest facility. We believe that there are very few cases that cannot be successfully managed in this way.

On the treatment of cancer, the author, with most writers on that disorder, considers any attempt to remove the complaint, except by extirpating the diseased parts, as altogether useless. He, however, mentions several nostrums which have been employed in France, and which have been said to cure

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the disease. On such remedies we think little dependence ought to be placed, either in that country or our own. The methods of operating, in cases of this kind, are described with accuracy and clearness.

The manner of treating wounds which penetrate into the cavity of the chest is judicious; and the reflections on the operation of the empyema are not without their utility.

On wounds of the head, and the application of the trepan, the author is pretty full; and the remarks which he has introduced, have, in general, a practical tendency, though they are not very numerous. In this part of the work, as well as many others, the professor elucidates the principles which are laid down, by the insertion of cases.

We have also many useful hints respecting the nature of cataracts of the eyes. The author thinks that proper distinctions should be made between the different kinds of cataract; and that the circumstances which mark their difference should be kept in view. Before Daviel discovered the method of extracting the cataract, the professor observes that the operation of depressing it was generally employed, but that at present that method is totally abandoned. The reasons for which, he tells us, are these:—that it is not applicable to all the different cases of the disease; that it does not cure the *membranous cataract*; that it is not useful when the crystalline humour is soft, or in a fluid state; that the cataract cannot be prevented by it from returning, even when it is in a solid state; that from the injury done to the different parts of the eye, it is highly dangerous; in short, that it is always a doubtful and uncertain operation.

Some of these objections, in our opinion, have not much foundation in truth; and we know from experience that the disease may frequently be effectually removed in this way. We notwithstanding think with the professor, that the method by extraction is more certain.

After describing the different means of cure in cases of fistula lacrymalis, polypus of the nose, aneurisms, &c. the professor concludes by giving a pretty full account of the manner of operating in cases where amputation is necessary. On the last subject he seems to have presented us with most of the improvements which have lately been made.

On the whole, this work of professor Lassus will be found a very useful compendium of operative surgery, though the author has not availed himself of *all* the *new* modes of practice that have been adopted in the art.

Demosthenis Oratio adversus Leptinem, cum Scholiis veteribus et Commentario perpetuo. Accedit Ælii Aristidis Declamatio ejusdem Causæ, in Germaniâ nunc primum edita. Curâ Frid. Aug. Wolfii. Halis Saxonum, 1789.

The Speech of Demosthenes against Leptines, with ancient Scholia and a continued Commentary; to which is added the Harangue of Ælius Aristides in the same Cause. Edited by F. A. Wolff. 8vo. 8s. sewed. Imported by Escher. 1796.

PROFESSOR Wolff of Halle has long borne a high rank among the numerous *literati* of modern Germany, in the department of philological learning; and the illustrative accompaniments of this edition will not derogate from his early fame.

In an epistle addressed to a German friend, he assigns, as a reason for selecting the oration of Demosthenes against Leptines, the particular adaptation of that harangue to the prevailing inclination of his countrymen for the mild and temperate species of oratory; and he affirms, that he scarcely ever received greater pleasure in the perusal of any piece of eloquence in prose, than that which he felt on the attentive study of this attractive speech. He at first intended to publish it with only a small portion of occasional notes; but, as is frequently the case, his annotations insensibly increased to a considerable bulk; and he so far indulged his spirit of criticism, that a regular commentary arose under his hands.

His *Prolegomena* partake of the tedious diffuseness of his commentary. The German commentators seem to be of opinion that erudition can only be evinced by amplitude of remark and multiplicity of strictures.

This long Preface contains a statement of the substance of the oration, and a detail of the circumstances which gave rise to it, as well as of various particulars connected with the subject. It also comprehends an account of the speech of Aristides, which was first published in 1785. Having found it in the library of St. Mark at Venice, Morelli gave it to the world with a Latin interpretation and notes. It is more florid and declamatory than the oration which it accompanies, but less weighty and forcible, and less recommended by the charms of genuine eloquence.

In the earlier part of the former oration, a passage occurs, which is variously read in the manuscript copies. The present editor has thus given it: *εν δε τω προσγραψαι, μηδε το λοιπον εξειναι δειναι, ιμας το δειναι.* This reading is preferable to that of Reiske, as well as to that of our countryman Taylor; but it is still, in some degree, harsh and uncouth. In a subsequent

quent passage, M. Wolff attacks Reiske for the transposition of the verb *δοkein* to an improper place; and, indeed, it appears that the sense is injured by that alteration; for the people did not merely *seem* to follow Leptines, when they ratified the law, which he proposed, but *really did* adopt his sentiments; whereas, if he should give way to the abrogation of it, he would rather *seem* to imbibe their inclinations, than *actually* agree with them in his heart.—The difficulty of the sentence, *νυν μὲν γὰρ, τὸν χρόνον, &c.* is apparently removed by the explanations of our editor; the result of which we will transcribe, as it will serve also for a specimen of his Latinity.

‘Si vere deficient cives obeundis muneribus publicis pares, præstare equidem crediderim, rem per contributionem fieri. Hoc modo parva impensa ad unumquemque perveniet, nec se quisquam nimis oneratum queri poterit: contra, e Leptinis lege et ratione, quantumvis ea omnibus oneris levamentum promittat, ii tamen, quos vult levatos, nonnisi tamdiu vacatione fruuntur, quamdiu hi, quos novos nunc addemus, in functione erunt, post id tempus ipsi sumtum facturi nihilo minorem quam antea.’ He does not, however, admit the cogency of the arguments which he has here attributed to Demosthenes; for he adds, not unaptly, ‘Oratorem veritate hic niti, nonnihil dubitem. Multum interest, in annos singulos, an tertio quintove quoque anno sumtus erogare cogamur.’

In the discussion of the sentence, *εἰ οἱ μὲν εἰδοτες καὶ παθοντες, &c.* he reprehends the attempts of Markland for the pretended correction of an incorrupt part of the text. He supports the passage, *πολλοὶς ἔπειν δὲ αὐτὸν ἄλλον, &c.* against those who have impugned its propriety. He defends other points against the most esteemed commentators; rectifies various errors, sometimes by mere punctuation, at other times by the authority of manuscripts; and displays, in general, both learning and sagacity.

We are surprised to find no annotations upon the speech of Aristides. If M. Wolf thought it worthy of being published with that of Demosthenes, it might also have been deemed deserving of some illustration.

Recherches Politiques sur l'État Ancien et Moderne de la Pologne, appliquées à sa dernière Revolution. Par J. P. Garran, Représentant du Peuple. Paris.

Political Researches into the Ancient and Modern State of Poland; applied to the last Revolution in that Country. 8vo. 5s. Sewed. Imported by De Boffe. 1796.

THE decree of fraternisation by the French occasioned an alarm throughout Europe: the actual division of Poland by crowned heads did not produce a single remonstrance from
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any of the states concerned for the balance of power. Every man of thought must have made serious reflections on the consequences of these two events : and his conclusions will be derided by men of weak understandings or strong intrigue. The one will be blinded by the prejudices of the times ; the other feels an interest in betraying the rights of his fellow-creatures : a few years will take off the veil from the eyes of the first ; and the intrigues of the last will be detected. It should seem, however, that in comparing the two events together, if one party was base in the formation of its decree, the other was infinitely more wicked in putting a similar decree of its own into execution, and in exceeding every idea we can form of the atrocities of the French, by the bloody mode in which its plans were executed.

The revolutions in France and Poland happened so nearly at the same time, that they must be frequently the objects of comparison ; and the difference of their fates must excite the attention of the politician and philosopher. Poland, a country much larger than France, was subdued with scarcely a struggle. France resisted the combined efforts of the greater part of Europe,—carried war and desolation into the country of its enemies,—and saw by turns the sovereigns, who despised the growing republic, supplicating for peace. Whence could this arise ? Why should there be life and energy in one country,—timidity, servility, and baseness in the other ? The one country dismissed from its bosom the most warlike nobility in Europe ; its warriors and its statesmen were taken from the mass of the people : in the other country the nobility managed all, the people were nothing ; the nobles fell a prey to their own intestine divisions ; and the majority were found to prefer private emolument and a foreign yoke to the happiness, liberty and prosperity of their country.

The reason of this strange conduct in the Poles must be looked for, not in a few insulated facts of the present century, but from the history and general character of the people. This history will be given differently by the writers of different nations ; and to arrive at truth, it will be useful to hear on this subject the sentiments of a republican. Big with the sentiments of liberty, the author employed his thoughts on the work before us, at a time when the despotism of Robespierre threatened the destruction of his country. Active efforts at that moment were useless ; and confident that the tyrant would be destroyed, he examined the history of Poland with a view ' to augment the hatred of virtuous men against all oppressors, and to ridicule their indignation against a cowardly coalition, which could spoil only a disarmed race of slaves.' From this specimen we might presume that there would be no compromise

mise between the author's feelings and those of the aristocracy: he never spares the latter: and justice compels us to observe, that the conduct of the aristocracy in Poland justifies most of his invectives against that order

A description of the country, and an inquiry into the history of its original inhabitants, are the basis of our author's researches: and the authorities which he produces, show that he has not been a superficial reader. The nature of the government is then well investigated, and the causes which have prevented hitherto the progress of civilisation and the establishment of popular liberty in Poland, are exposed with true republican freedom. The Poles were originally a horde of horsemen, whose incursions into an enemy's country procured them slaves, to attend to domestic and rural employments. Hence they held every thing in contempt, which was incompatible with the life of horsemen: they alone were free; and this freedom, by the strength of their laws to exclude the lower order from any political employment, degraded both orders: the cast of the nobles became haughty, indolent, insolent, brutal, and oppressive: the plebeians, base, servile, and without energy. No laws could keep within bounds the insolence of the higher order; no encouragement could raise from their degraded state of mind the children of oppression. In the author's opinion, nothing can give life to Poland but the destruction of its nobility, the general sale of its starosties, the division of the great fortunes, and a national convention. These different articles of reform are recommended with great force of argument: an attempt is made to show even the nobility, that they would gain by mixing with the commonalty; and the evils of their former conduct are painted in such strong colours, and so well contrasted with the misery of their present condition and the glory of ancient republics, that even a noble Pole might be induced to lay aside his prejudices, and learn that his vassal and himself are by nature equal, equally entitled to the protection of laws, and the advantages of society. But, if the author produces not the desired effect on the Poles, he will have the satisfaction of thinking that his work must inevitably produce this impression on the mind of every thinking inhabitant of Britain and France, namely, that a cast of nobles, an order of men proudly setting itself apart from the rest of the country, must inevitably produce faction, and all those disorders which ever result from an institution contrary to natural and revealed religion.

Νικάνδρου Ἀλεξίφαρμακα. *Nicandri Alexipharmaca, seu de Venenis in Potu Cibove Homini datis, eorumque Remediis, Carmen; cum Scholiis Græcis, et Eutecni Sophistæ Paraphrasi Græca. Ex Libris Scriptis emendavit, Animadversionibusque et Paraphrasi Latinâ, illustravit Jo. Gottlob Schneider, Saxo, Eloqu. et Phil. Prof. in Viadrinâ Univers.* Halæ. 1792.

Nicander's Poem concerning Poisons and their Remedies; accompanied with Greek Illustrations, and a Latin Paraphrase and Notes, added by Professor Schneider. 8vo. 5s. 6d. Sewed. Imported by Escher. 1796.

AS some even of our classical readers may be unacquainted with the name of Nicander, it may be proper to observe, that he was a native of Claros, in Ionia; that he practised the medical art with great reputation; and that he flourished about the 140th year before the birth of Christ. The poem of which this is a new edition, was considered by the ancients as a work of merit and utility; but the superior attainments of the physicians of the present times, in that branch of the healing art which is the subject of the poem (without regard to their pre-eminence in other departments of their profession), detract from the value of the performance. It is not, however, our business to discuss the merits of this production of medical antiquity, but to examine the execution of the task undertaken by the German editor.

The annotations of professor Schneider are too diffuse, according to the general custom which prevails among German commentators. He has quoted, without necessity, a variety of passages from medical and other writers, and has amused himself with superfluous illustrations.

As we cannot be expected to follow the editor in his extended course of remark, we shall only subjoin some incidental observations, before we give a summary opinion of his claims to public approbation.

The eleventh verse of the poem has produced a note which exceeds three pages, on points which might have been briefly adjusted. With regard to the phrase, *πύλη ἐπικεκλιται*, there is a difference of opinion between M. Schneider and two Greek scholiasts; and the professor justly animadverts on that interpretation which derives *ἐπικεκλιται* from *κλείω*, as if it referred to the act of shutting or stopping up; whereas it involves the sense of *inclining*, being regularly formed from *κλίνω*, and relates to the situation of *πύλη*, or the mouth of the stomach. He differs from the Greek commentators in the explication of other passages; and the grounds of his objections are generally strong.

On the disputed reading of *ασχάλωσιν, ἀλη* (v. 124), he observes

serves that *αλη* and *αλλη*, in the sense of *error*, are sometimes used synonymously. In the next line, he retains *πεδαι*, though we think that *κεδαι*, used for *σπεδαι*, would improve the sense. He recommends *αλαλην* for *απαλην* (v. 165); but the ordinary reading is more appropriate.

In a ludicrous passage which compares the noise of a flatulent stomach to the roarings of the sea or of thunder, we perceive an irregularity of grammatical construction, which requires a remedy. Our commentator conjectures that there is a deficiency of a whole verse. The reference of *ειδομενος* to a personal pronoun supposed to be understood, and the introduction of *εστι* in the mind, will perhaps rectify the disorder; but there will then be a difficulty, arising from the comparison of the person himself to thunder; though this objection may be removed by the consideration of those varied modes of speech which occur in the Greek and in other languages, and which will readily suggest themselves to the learned reader.

Instead of accumulating remarks of praise, censure, or illustration, upon a poem which few will be tempted to read, we shall conclude with observing, that M. Schneider has manifested his knowledge of natural history, and his philological learning, in his interpretation of the medico-poetical labours of Nicander.

Voyage Philosophique et Pittoresque sur les Rives du Rhin, à Liege, dans la Flandre, le Brabant, la Hollande, &c. fait en 1790 par George Forster, l'un des Compagnons de Cook. Traduit de l'Allemand, avec des Notes Critiques sur la Physique, la Politique, et les Arts, par Charles Pougens. Paris.

A Philosophical and Picturesque Tour on the Banks of the Rhine, in the Bishopric of Liege, Flanders, Brabant, Holland, &c. undertaken in 1790 by George Forster, one of the Companions of Captain Cook. Translated into French from the German, and illustrated with Notes, relative to Natural Philosophy, Arts, and Politics, by Charles Pougens. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. sewed. Imported by De Boffe. 1796.

THE writer to whom this tour is attributed (or from whose manuscripts it was compiled by M. Pougens) was distinguished by a thirst of science, and a zeal for liberty. He was a native of Dantzic, whence he was sent to England in his early years; and his age did not exceed nineteen, when he accompanied captain Cook in his second voyage round the world. Of this voyage he published a well-written account. He afterwards officiated as professor of natural history at Cassel; presided over the university of Mentz, when that city was re-

duced by Gallic arms; and died in France after the formation of the republic.

This work consists of twenty-seven letters, which are accompanied with a considerable number of annotations. The first epistle contains nothing worthy of our notice. In the second we meet with an account of a Moravian establishment at Neuwied, near Coblenz. The writer represents the individuals of this society as industrious, virtuous, and intelligent. His next letter comprehends some mineralogical speculations, and a sketch of the contents of the electoral cabinet at Bonne. A brief description of the cathedral of Cologne follows, accompanied with various reflections, moral as well as architectural. This church is represented as a *chef d'œuvre* in the Gothic style of building; and its beauties are celebrated by our traveller in terms of rapture. The extraordinary number of priests and beggars in the same city could not but strike him in his progress; and he animadverts on the prejudices and bigotry of the former, and on the corrupt indolence of the latter, whose establishment he considers as highly disgraceful to the magistracy. 'When a number of wretches' (we will translate the passage) 'are maintained and even encouraged in idleness, it is a strong and unequivocal symptom of disorder in the body politic. The industrious members of the community, being constrained to share the produce of their labours with these miscreants, are necessarily disgusted with that government which authorises such encroachments on labour and honesty; and even the dullest of mortals, and those who are least inclined to complain, must be of opinion that their rulers treat them injuriously; in imposing on them the burthen of supporting so many individuals, who merit the contempt of the wise and the chastisement of the magistrate. The result of such a custom is, that he whose soul is too spiritless to urge him to a justifiable resistance, contracts a political apathy, and an indifference to the public welfare; for no government can trust to the patriotism of the people, when they are injured and harassed.' Other remarks are subjoined, which, being less pertinent, we omit.

Three long letters are devoted to a description of the paintings in the gallery of Dusseldorf; a collection which no longer exists in the same state. The next epistle comprehends an account of Jülich and Aix-la-Chapelle, mingled with political observations. A pleasing description is afterwards given of Burscheid; and the woollen manufactures of that town are represented as extensive and flourishing.

The vivacity and activity of the inhabitants of Liege are contrasted with the phlegmatic dullness of those of Aix-la-Chapelle: and the former are said to resemble the French both

in their persons and manners. The democratic spirit which this traveller observed among them, gave him great pleasure, and led him into congenial reflections. Amidst these discussions, both he and his French translator speak contemptuously of the boasted freedom of the English; and M. Pougens does not scruple to affirm, that they are mere slaves, with the word *liberty* inscribed on their chains.

The importance of Brussels has produced a multiplicity of remarks, descriptive, characteristic, philosophical, political, and historical. A copious narrative is given of the contests between the court of Vienna and the Brabançons, and of the various tumults which agitated their capital; and the folly and superstition of a priest-ridden people are exhibited in strong colours. But a considerable change has taken place in the affairs of Brabant and the dispositions of the inhabitants, since the time here referred to.

We are afterwards entertained with concise descriptions of Tournay and Lille, and a more extended account of Dunkirk. This town suffered considerably from that check which was given to illicit trade by the commercial agreement of the year 1786, between Great-Britain and France. The effects of this treaty were obviously perceptible at the time of Forster's visit; but commerce and manufactures were still carried on with spirit. The remarks on Ostend, which (the writer says), from the great intercourse of British subjects, bore the appearance of an English town, are superseded by the altered state of the place. In describing Ghent, he speaks of the furious barbarity of the Austrian soldiers, who, in the year 1789, burned a part of that city, and committed various acts of outrage. Eighty children, he informs us, perished on that occasion, either by the swords of the *jaeilutes* of despotism, or by the flames which consumed the habitations of their parents.

In the letters which relate to Holland, a favourable character is given of the inhabitants; the state of commerce is properly described; the works of art, the cabinets of science, and the appearances of nature, are sketched with accuracy.

The friends of monarchy and aristocracy will not be pleased with the political sentiments which are dispersed through this performance; but the other contents of the work will afford entertainment and instruction to all parties.—The French dress in which it appears, however, cannot be highly praised; for the style is affected, deficient in purity, and replete with barbarisms of modern fabrication.

Le Spectateur Français avant la Revolution, par le Citoyen De la Croix. Paris.

Le Spectateur François pendant le Gouvernement Revolutionnaire. Paris.

The French Spectator before the Revolution, by Citizen de la Croix. 8vo. 7s. Imported by De Boffe. 1796.

The French Spectator during the Revolutionary Government, by the same. 8vo. 5s. Imported by De Boffe. 1796.

THE first of these works was published by M. de la Croix nearly twenty years ago. It appears to have been his intention to have presented his countrymen with a periodical essay in the manner of the English Spectator. But whether he was not at liberty to chastise the reigning follies with the free pen of an Addison or a Steele, or whether he had not caught a sufficient portion of their humour and spirit, it is certain that *his Spectator* bears a very scanty resemblance to his model. His outlines are frequently unfinished, and many of his papers are mere scraps; the humour is transient, and the moral not always distinct. Notwithstanding, the reader will occasionally find some of the features of the French character touched with neatness and fidelity. The letter of a husband who possessed only the title, the conversation with a beggar, the letter of a man become poor from vanity, and the plan of a moral Linnaeus, may be mentioned as containing most of the Addisonian spirit. The more serious papers are usually very long, and have a metaphysical cast, which is averse from the design of a work professedly in imitation of the Spectator. But this manner of writing is best adapted to the talents of the author; and we therefore find him more at home in it.

The Second, or French Spectator during the Revolutionary Government. This was undertaken while Robespierre was in the zenith of his power, and being written with moderation, could not be very acceptable to the minions of that tyrant. ‘At this time,’ says De la Croix, ‘the reputation of a moralist exposed a man to more persecution, than if he had even possessed the titles of a priest or a noble.’ This work, although not composed on the same plan as the *Constitution of Europe*, in five volumes, by the same author, forms a kind of supplement to it, and consists of short essays, supposed letters, and anecdotes, relative to the progress of the French revolution. In all these the author discovers a laudable desire to check the spirit of party and of prejudice, and to consolidate the republic by the unanimity of his fellow-citizens. Some of them are written with considerable humour, chiefly at the expense of the emigrants and ex-nobles. From these we shall give a short specimen.

LETTER OF AN INCURABLE.

' What! Mr. Spectator, would you persuade me that I am no longer noble, who can feel in my veins the blood of three generations purified from plebeian mixture? To what purpose then was it, that my grandfather, quitting commerce, purchased a place in the treasury, that his son was fixed in the chamber of accounts with the title of Chevalier, and that I was rendered illustrious by the post of Master of Requests? Is it in the power of man to derange the course of nature? Yes, I will maintain it, there is no more resemblance between a noble and a plebeian, than between the air and the earth. Never will I disgrace myself so far as to believe that a magistrate like me is not of a more delicate substance than an attorney or a tipstaff; and yet there is not one of these beings who has not the folly to persuade himself that he is become my equal, and who does not think he honours me by loading me with his coarse familiarity. Ah! I hope the time will come, when every one shall regain his place; we shall then see how these little people will look, who have so soon forgotten what they owe to us.

' I promise myself the satisfaction of humbling them by all my *hauteur*, and punishing them for their former insolence. But in the mean time, till this desirable moment arrives, how many contradictions have I to cope with! One day I am commanded to go upon the patrolle with my shoemaker, who presses my hand as if he were pressing my foot. At another time they place me as a sentinel at the gate of a prison; and there I am obliged to cool my heels, and keep off impertinent people, under pain of being imprisoned myself.

' It happened to me to be placed on guard before the hall where our modern legislators assemble; and I was condemned to keep peace and preserve respect, where I would have fain said that there was nothing but disorder and rebellion. What a mortification to see power thus misplaced; to hear with my own ears the decrees which swallow up my fortune, and recitals of victories which blast my hopes; and to be compelled to feign joy, when my heart is enflamed with rage! This dissimulation would perhaps cost me less trouble, if I saw any end to it.

' If I must continue in a state of things which confounds me, my existence will be worse than death; all my sentiments are changing; all my affections are departing from nature; the sight of my children makes me sad. What a revolution in my thoughts! I who used to bless the fruitfulness of my spouse, because she prolonged the race of nobles; instead of bringing chevaliers into the world, she has given life to nothing but patriots, and expanded the growth of republicans!

Better had it been for me to have remained a bachelor. Be gone from me, creatures formed for equality! come not near me, unless to preserve me from marching in the dress of a soldier; you are no longer in my eyes the sprigs I expected to flourish and adorn my old age. And you, unhappy companion of my disgrace, solicit not my embraces by your sweet endearments; expect not from me the tender regards of your husband, who united himself to you only for the sake of having illustrious descendants; to share with you his honour and consequence, and to enjoy the respect annexed to his high offices; since the purpose of my marriage can be no longer accomplished, I break my engagements, and return to celibacy and nothingness.

‘Behold, Mr. Spectator, the resolution to which I have been driven by the system I abhor. If all men of my rank adopt my principles, we will no longer give being to children destined to disgrace. Since we cannot overturn the republic at one blow, we will insensibly undermine it by refusing the aid of our existence; and if it lasts in spite of our efforts, we shall at least be free from the reproach of having contributed our assistance, and increased the growth of new fruits on a soil which has produced nothing but briars to us.’

M. la Croix’s answer to this letter is not written in the same style of humour. It is indeed a falling-off.

‘THE ANSWER.

‘You have taken a resolution, Monsieur, which, so far from alarming your enemies, agrees perfectly with their desires:—they wish to have *men* only in their society; and while pretending to furnish them with more, you have in fact furnished them with fewer. I advise you in the mean time to conceal your project and its motives; for perhaps they may commence with plunging you into nothing, by way of convincing you that you are nothing.’

The author’s observations on the causes and effects of the revolution, scattered through this volume, are frequent, just, and striking; and his popular manner of writing, of which the letter above is no inconsiderable specimen, probably gives effect to his sentiments among the lower classes of society,—if we may use such an expression in regard to the French nation. But there is an equality not yet established in France,—that of talents and knowledge: and to those who possess but a moderate share of either, M. de la Croix may be supposed to speak with success, as he is a firm friend to the republic, yet averse from prejudice or violence of sentiment. From all that we have lately seen of the French writings, the reign of terror seems to be over.

Traité des Maladies Chirurgicales, et des Opérations qui leur conviennent, par MM. Chopart et Desault, Professeurs à l'Ecole Pratique de Chirurgie, &c. Paris.

A Treatise on Surgical Complaints, and the Operations which are necessary for their Removal. By Messrs Chopart and Desault, Professors in the Practical School of Surgery, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. sewed. Imported by De Boffe. 1796.

THE utility of clear and exact descriptions of disorders that require the assistance of the surgeon, and of accurate and particular details of the methods of practice which have generally been attended with success, must be obvious to every one. These the authors of the present treatise seem to have had in view, and at the same time the forming of a kind of elementary work, to which the students who attended their lectures might occasionally refer.

For the execution of such an undertaking with success, much experience was unquestionably necessary, and such as the practice of a large hospital could alone supply. Much of the materials that compose these volumes seems to have been derived from the practice at the Hospital of Humanity, formerly the Hotel-Dieu.

Those who are conversant with the progress of surgery on the continent, cannot be unacquainted with the name of Desault. The improvement of this useful art in France has been much indebted to his zeal and industry. It appears from the account of his life, prefixed to this treatise, and which was written by M. Bichat, one of his pupils, that he was indefatigable in his attention to the advancement of his profession; and that, though beset with difficulties of various kinds, he forced his way, by the exertion of his great talents, to the first and most important surgical situations in the country. He proposed, and ultimately, though not without considerable difficulty, accomplished, the establishment of a school at the Hotel Dieu, for the purpose of instructing the pupils of that extensive hospital in clinical practice.

It was not only in this way that he endeavoured to extend the limits of surgical knowledge, but also by the publication of useful observations and interesting cases. With this intention, in the year 1791, he began a journal of surgery, which we believe has been translated into our own language.

These are the chief particulars which immediately interest the surgeon.

The observations with which we are presented in the introductory part of the work, are judicious and important. It is here

here contended, and perhaps justly, that surgery and medicine are more intimately connected than has generally been imagined. The same opinion has been maintained by an excellent practical writer of our own country, Dr. Kirkland, in a valuable publication intitled, ‘An Inquiry into the present State of Medical Surgery.’

We also meet with many useful remarks concerning the operative part of surgery, and the various circumstances which are necessary to be attended to in undertaking this department of chirurgical duty. The young surgeon may consult this part of the work with considerable advantage, as it contains much valuable preliminary information, and the leading principles of his art, laid down in a neat and perspicuous manner.

Under the title ‘Diseases of the Head,’ are considered wounds of the teguments of the cranium, from pointed, cutting, and blunt instruments, and from other bodies acting upon them in these different ways; also contusions from fire-arms, necrosis, exostosis, caries, depression and fractures of the bones of the skull; lesions of the brain and its membranes, the effects of concussion on the dura mater, fungous tumours of the dura mater, the effects of concussion on the brain, the operation of the trepan, and the encephalocoele.

The symptoms and circumstances which characterise these affections, are in general described with tolerable accuracy, and a degree of neatness, though frequently, perhaps, in too concise a manner. The remedies and means of curing them are also for the most part judicious and well directed. On some few points, however, we have observed modes of practice inculcated, which have long been discarded by surgeons of reputation in this country.

Under ‘Diseases of the Face,’ are comprehended all the different affections of the eyes, the ears, the nose, and nasal cavities, the mouth, and parts contained within it, the lips, and the jaws. From these we pass to the diseases of the neck, which are, tumours of the lymphatic glands, the wry neck, wounds of the neck, the diseases of the larynx and the trachea, with their different operations, the complaints of the pharynx and œsophagus, and the methods of removing them, and the operation for seton in the neck.

Here we meet with the same attention to correctness and brevity of description, as in the preceding part; and what we conceive to be the common practice of surgery in France, is presented to the reader in a plain and obvious manner. Much regard is paid, in this as well as other parts of the treatise, to
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the more common objects of surgery, which indeed are seldom to be met with in the larger works.

In treating of the nature and causes of many of the diseases which are here considered, there does not seem to have been the same degree of attention. On these subjects we frequently meet with conclusions that appear to be visionary, and by no means well supported by the observation of other practitioners.

In some instances too, there is a palpable neglect of properly distinguishing the different varieties of disease. The bronchocele is an example of this kind; for it is well known that there are several varieties of that complaint, though in the present treatise we have only a description of that in which the thyroid gland is itself considerably enlarged. The following is the account which is here given of it—

‘ The *goitre* is an indolent swelling of the thyroid gland, which at first, and even for some length of time, feels soft, and has not much appearance of enlargement, especially where its progress is but slow, and the neck of the patient pretty full; it is, however, frequently hard, and many years in increasing to any considerable size, then becomes soft and painful. It sometimes becomes so large, as to occupy the whole of the fore part of the neck and the superior part of the breast, and even to impede circulation, respiration, and deglutition, and from its pressure to render the voice weak or hoarse. It is sometimes composed of a yellowish fluid substance, which, at other times, is clear and aqueous, white and thick, black and even brown, and is contained in one or a number of different cysts; it is very rarely cellular or distended with air. It is also met with in a hard sarcomatous or schirrous state, containing cartilaginous and stony concretions, &c. The disease is more common among women than men, especially those who are subject to irregularities of the menses, are pregnant, or have used violent exertions when in labour. The danger of tumours of this nature is to be estimated from their magnitude, the pressure which they exert on the surrounding parts, the absorption of the fluid which they contain, and from the degree of suppuration. When the swelling is simple, soft, and not of too long standing, it will generally give way to proper diet, purgative remedies, or to the application of burnt sponge, burnt cork, small bags of marine salt, or of sal ammoniac; but if these remedies do not accomplish a cure, the disease must be left to nature. If the tumour be painful, emollient applications should be employed; and when a free suppuration has taken place, the matter ought

to be discharged without pressure, by an opening of about half an inch in length made in the most depending part; a bandage should then be applied moderately tight, in order to prevent the introduction of the air, and promote the complete discharge of the matter. By this means, the parts recovering their former condition, the discharge ceases, and a cure is performed. But if, after opening the swelling, a black discharge should take place, and the tumor still continue of a large size, it will be necessary to lay it open in its whole length, in order to compress and close the open vessels; if this be not done, the patient commonly dies in a very short time. When the tumor is hard and schirrous, its removal should never be attempted by the knife, as an hæmorrhage, which is frequently fatal, generally succeeds; nor even by the cautery, which is here a dangerous and mostly an ineffectual means of cure. Topical bleedings, and such remedies as evacuate the collected humours, are here alone to be employed.

In the mode of treatment recommended in the early stages of this disease, we do not find that either frictions, mercurial, or saponaceous plasters, have been made use of.

After the diseases of the neck, we come to those of the chest, under which are described the various affections of the vertebræ and ribs, complaints of the sternum, and the application of the trepan, the diseases of the breast and nipples, and their modes of treatment, the different kinds of wounds of the chest, and the methods of cure; abscesses of the lungs, and extravasations of pus into the cavities of the chest, hydrothorax, the operation for the empyema, aneurisms of the aorta, &c. From these we proceed to the diseases of the abdomen, under which are comprised the different affections and disorders of the bones of the pelvis and coccyx, wounds of the abdomen of different kinds, and from different instruments; burns, different tumours, the cutting of the umbilical cord, different kinds of hernia, præternatural anus, internal tumours of the belly, abscesses of the liver, affections of the gall-bladder, ascites or dropsy of the belly, dropsies of the ovaria, substances lodged in the intestines, such as worms, poisons, and concretions, &c. These are the principal diseases and affections that are treated of in these volumes. In considering them, it is evident that the plan of proceeding from the head to the extremities has been adopted without any regard to the affections of particular organs. But the diseases of both the upper and lower extremities are omitted, and also many other complaints, which properly belong to this department of the medical profession.

Essai sur la Politique et la Législation des Romains. Traduit de l'Italien. Paris.

Essay on the Policy and Legislation of the Romans; translated from the Italian. 12mo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Imported by De Boffe. 1796.

THE treatise of which this is a translation, is said to have been written by the celebrated Beccaria, though it is not certainly known to be his work. The author represents the Roman constitution in a less advantageous light than many former writers have done, and blames those who have blindly followed the opinions of the admirers of that government.

The present volume not being an original, our only concern should be with the merits of the translation; but, as the Italian work is little known in this kingdom, we shall exhibit an outline of its chief contents.

The essayist, neglecting the consideration of the power of the senate under the kings of Rome, affirms, that those princes, in general, exercised an arbitrary sway. He stigmatises the revolution which subverted the monarchy, as an exchange of the despotism of a perpetual sovereign for that of two masters, whose power expired with the current year; and we must allow, that the people did not derive from the change that full benefit to which they were entitled; a disappointment which frequently attends revolutions. He censures the choice which the Roman deputies made of Grecian laws; represents the laws of the twelve tables as better adapted to the time of Romulus than to the period at which they were introduced; and condemns the Roman laws in the aggregate, as well as the arbitrary interpretation of them.

He does not exhibit a flattering picture of the modes of education which prevailed among the Romans; nor does he panegyrisé their religious system, with which, indeed, various absurdities were interwoven. With respect to population, he observes that they did not understand the proper methods of encouraging it, but that an opposite effect necessarily resulted from many of their institutions. He finds some difficulty in reconciling this opinion with the accounts which have been transmitted, of the number of Roman citizens at different periods; but he is not inclined to give up the point.

In treating of the state of slavery among the Romans, he severely animadverts on the tyranny of their laws in that particular, as well as on the inhumanity of individuals towards the wretches who were thus subjected to their will. His warmth on this topic is the effervescence of a liberal spirit.

He endeavours to prove that this celebrated nation had an imperfect

imperfect knowledge of agriculture, and that, whatever may have been said of the great regard paid to that art, it did not receive the attention which it deserved. He also mentions the neglect of commerce during the existence of the republic, and the inconsiderable progress which was made, under the sway of the emperors, towards the attainment of a complete acquaintance with the means of mercantile prosperity.

In treating of prodigality, he divides it into two species; namely, the neglect of great land-holders in the cultivation of their estates, and the practice of lavish expenditure. The former instance is not properly classed; for he who does not cultivate his lands, may rather be said to *lose* than to *consume*: he deprives himself, as well as others, of the eventual benefit of his property, and thus manifests not only an absurd negligence, but an illiberal spirit. A prodigal person, on the other hand, suffers his expenses to exceed all bounds, derives various indulgencies from his profusion, and promotes that circulation of his riches, from which others receive advantage, while his own ruin is rapidly approaching. This writer imputes blame to the Romans for not having punished indiscriminately those whom he calls prodigals of the first class, without regard to the extent of their property; and he reprehends their treatment of the real prodigals as partial and unjust; affirming that individuals of this description, with a proviso of their purchase of the produce and manufactures of their own country, merit encouragement rather than restraint.

On the subject of successions to estates, he imputes absurdity and inconsistency to the Roman laws; and, entering into a disquisition concerning the practice of testamentary disposal of property, he is of opinion that it has been productive of more mischief than benefit; but his arguments on this head are far from being conclusive.

In the subsequent chapters of the work, he condemns the establishment of hereditary nobility; censures the Romans for having authorised the revocation of presents; disputes the equity of their laws in the case of acquiring property by prescription; and boldly attacks other institutions which they adopted.

While this writer endeavours to expose the weakness of those who idolise the Roman law and polity, he himself rushes into the opposite extreme, and assumes the character of a severe censor. An affectation of singularity has, perhaps, impelled him to this conduct. He manifests, however, some *traits* of acuteness, and a spirit of philosophical investigation.

As we have not seen the original essay, we cannot ascertain the

the accuracy of the translation; but we are at liberty to pronounce our opinion of the style; of which we may assert, that it is more distinguished by perspicuity than by purity or elegance.

Histoire de la Décadence des Mœurs chez les Romains, & de ses Effets dans les derniers Temps de la République; traduite de l'Allemand de C. Meiners, par René Binet. Paris.

History of the Decline (or progressive Corruption) of Manners among the Romans, and of its Effects in the later Times of the Republic; translated from the German of Meiners, by Binet. 12mo. 4s. sewed. Imported by De Basse. 1796.

THIS translation was published as a companion to that which we last criticised. In the Preface, M. Binet represents the ruin of the Roman republic as the consequence of depravity of manners; and he therefore recommends, to the new legislators of France, the sedulous promotion of morality and virtue, which, he says, were little practised under the monarchical government of that country, and were nearly overwhelmed amidst the late confusions of anarchy and the atrocities of proscription.

Professor Meiners traces the intipient depravation of the manners of the Romans, from their series of triumphs subsequent to the termination of the second Punic war. The influx of foreign wealth began to destroy their frugal habits; and the contagion of foreign vices sapped the foundations of their ancient virtue. Cato, the stern censor, eagerly endeavoured to check the approaches of luxury and vice; and the efforts of other republicans of the old school were directed to the same object: but their exhortations and example were ineffectual. The progress of corruption, profligacy, and disorder, became more rapid after the destruction of Carthage and Corinth; and it is traced by this author to the time of the Catilinarian conspiracy. But, as the work is a compilation from a well-known portion of history, and does not abound with originality of remark, we shall dismiss it with observing that it bears the marks of attention and accuracy, and that the translation appears to be well executed.

Homeri Opera omnia, ex Recognitione Frid. Aug. Wolff, qui de eorundem Operum prisca et genuina Formâ, variisque Mutationibus, et probabili Ratione emendandi, Prolegomena scripsit. Halis Saxonum.

All the Works of Homer, revised by F. A. Wolff, who, in his Preface, has treated of their ancient and genuine Form, and their successive Changes, and has suggested the Means of regular Emendation. Vol. I. 8vo. 14s. sewed. Imported by Escher. 1796.

HAVING illustrated various authors by the efforts of critical sagacity, M. Wolff is now employed in an emendation.

tory review of the works of the prince of Grecian poets. As this is a task of no small labour, he has hitherto published only the first part, which contains the whole Iliad (divided into two volumes), and a copious mass of *Prolegomena*. The text is accurately printed; but the points in which it varies from other editions will be more properly discussed when the professor shall have favoured the world with the reasons of his occasional alterations, and shall have communicated other particulars in a promised commentary. The only object, therefore, of our present consideration, is the editor's elaborate preface.

He begins with animadverting on the imperfect labours of those commentators who consult only a small number of manuscripts, and endeavour to remove occasional doubts by the adduction of few authorities. That kind of revision which he recommends is more regular, comprehensive, and complete. He considers that person only as an able and judicious illustrator, who has recourse to a multiplicity of manuscripts, seeks the aid of all the ancient scholiasts, accurately examines every suspected reading, investigates the peculiar spirit of the writer, and not only offers remedies for obvious disorders in the text, but cures even those which are in a manner concealed. That this rigorous scrutiny has been applied to the works of Homer, he is disposed to deny; and he therefore resolved to undertake the task.

Of the English critics, Barnes and Clarke, whose editions of Homer are well known, he affirms, that the former was not a man of great sagacity or profound erudition, and that the latter, though an excellent philologist, was not possessed of that patient perseverance which is requisite for critical studies. Barnes, indeed, though a man of learning, was not a consummate scholar; and Clarke was not sufficiently phlegmatic to toil through the depths of collation.

The Homeric editor with whose labors M. Wolff is most pleased, is Ernesti. But even the endeavours of this commentator did not answer the wishes of those who were eager to see the Iliad and Odyssey in a state of purity.

The professor congratulates the literary world on the appearance of that mass of *scholia* which Villoison has published, and which he considers as far superior in importance and utility to the remains of Eustathius and every other explicator of the poems of antiquity. This treasure he has diligently explored; and the fruits of his accurate research will gratify the readers of the present edition.

There is reason to imagine that Homer did not commit his productions to writing; but that he was accustomed to recite them in public, and that the itinerant rhapsodists or singers of the time repeated them throughout the Grecian states. From
this

this mode of communication, a considerable diversity was likely to arise; and, when the poems were afterwards transferred from the frail repository of the memory to the more permanent record of writing, various grounds of conjecture, and opportunities of alteration, offered themselves to the critical transcriber; and, on these occasions, the rude hands of ignorance and presumption sometimes injured and vitiated the text.

This opinion of the transmission of Homer's poems by memory is supported by M. Wolff with a variety of arguments and references, *usque ad tedium*. He also labours to prove that they bore a very different form in the time of the *composer*, (we will not say the *writer*) from that which they received in succeeding ages. He maintains the disputed notion, that they were not *written* before the time of Pisistratus, or the immediate successors of that usurper of Athenian sway. Upon this supposition, about four centuries must have elapsed from the composition to the manuscript publication of the Homeric effusions. During that interval, both the Iliad and the Odyssey, in all probability, consisted of detached portions, different from the regular divisions in which they now appear. The *lucidus ordo*, the *series juncturaque*, were afterwards bestowed upon them; and their original beauties, being more advantageously disposed, became more graceful and attractive.

Before the time of Zenodotus the Ephesian, eight copies of the works of Homer were esteemed more correct than the rest; but the particular times in which these appeared, and the respective state of the text of each, cannot be ascertained. From these and other copies, Zenodotus prepared a new edition, preferable in some respects to every one of the former, but, at the same time, abounding with instances of critical rashness, of presumptuous interpolation, and hasty subtraction. Aristophanes of Byzantium was also an editor of Homer; but he was in less repute than Aristarchus, his successor in that task. This prince of ancient critics diligently applied himself to the correction of the Homeric text, and rendered it more consistent with the rules of grammar and the laws of the poetic art; but he is accused of having been too free in his alterations, and of having, not unfrequently, extinguished the fire of the bard by the frigidity of pedantic accuracy. His edition, however, was regarded by the ancients as the best; and the text which we now read was formed on his model.

This subject we dismiss for the present, having exhibited the substance of the *Prolegomena*, as far as they now extend; for even these prefatory observations are unfinished.

OCCASIONAL RETROSPECT

OF

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

FRANCE.

HISTOIRE Naturelle, &c. Natural History of African Birds, by Francis Levaillant, 2d part, large quarto. Paris, 1796. The readers of Vaillant's Travels will know how to appreciate the merit of this superb work, which has cost the author so much painful research. Six species are contained in this number, which are faithfully delineated; but the author, as he often intimates in his travels, is not a friend to systems, and leaves classification to the pupils of Buffon and Linnæus.

Manuel Revolutionnaire, &c. Revolutionary Manual, or Moral Sentiments on the Politics of Nations in a State of Revolution. Paris, 1796. An abridgment of the causes, effects, and spirit of revolutions, containing truths and ideas suited to republicanism.

Problème Politique, &c. A Political Problem. Paris, 1796. For some time past Europe has been over-run with works on political and civil legislation, most of which are copies, the one from the other, with few variations, such as a difference of style, or more or less of positiveness in assertion. The present little work, however, deserves to be distinguished from the common mass. It turns on the question, What is the proper form of government for a people who have regained their liberty, and are jealous to preserve it? The author takes a hasty view of the forms of government established in England, Venice, Rome, and Switzerland; and stopping at the United Provinces, discusses the federative system, pointing out its faults, and concludes for a unity of government in a state, as the proper means to preserve liberty. The work has, therefore, been composed chiefly for the use of the Batavian people, and contains many just and apposite thoughts on the form of government they ought to adopt.

Nouveau Problème, &c. A new Problem to be resolved. Paris, 1796. This relates to the establishment of religion in a state, against which the author contends. All who have written on this side of the question, seem to have bent the

whole of their attention to the abuses of religious establishments; and it is to be regretted that their prominence so frequently strikes the eye.

Le Soirées Amusantes, &c. Amusing Evening Entertainments. Paris, 1796. A periodical collection of novels, from French, English, German, and other writers.

Les Aventures, &c. The Adventures of Anselme, 4 vols. 8vo. Paris, 1796. The first edition of this work was published in 1790, in two volumes. The author, Citizen Hourcastrème, then promised the present improved edition. It is not a romance, but properly a miscellany of philosophy and literature, chiefly with a view to give certain opinions on civil and criminal legislation.

Memoire sur l'Intérieur, &c. Memoir on the Interior Part of Africa, by Jerome Lalande, 4to. Paris, 1795. M. Lalande contends, in opposition to D'Anville, that the Niger and the Senegal are the same river; and demonstrates the practicability of traversing the interior of Africa from west to east. What Vailant has actually done, shows what may be done to visit the most barbarous nations, if the traveller's objects be those of humanity and curiosity only, and not of plunder and usurpation.

De l'Huile, &c. On the Oil of Beech-mast. By J. A. Baudin, Deputy to the National Convention. 8vo. Paris, 1795. *Instruction sur la Recolte, &c.* Instructions for the Collection of Beech-mast, and the Extraction of its Oil. 4to. In these pamphlets instructions are given for the preparation of beech oil, which is said to be equal in purity to oil of almonds, and will keep fresh for six or eight years. The first of them is published by the Committee of Public Safety; the second by that of Agriculture and Arts.

A new edition of Bourgoanne's Travels in Spain is about to be published in Paris, by the author, with large additions. The former edition was translated and printed in London, for Messrs. Robinsons, in 1789, in 3 vols. 8vo. A new edition of Grefier's Works is also in the press, with his posthumous pieces, which were presented to the National Institute by M. Dumesnil.

Citizen Gail has published the first volume of the Works of Xenophon, translated into French from the printed editions, and four MSS. in the National Library. Citizen Gail is Professor of Greek at the French College, Cambrai Place. This edition is in octavo: but there are some copies in quarto, on vellum paper, to be ornamented with plates by Barbier and Ingouf. The translation is reckoned accurate; and the original is given with it, together with copious notes, and various readings.

Simplification, &c. Simplification of the Oriental Tongues, or a new Method of learning the Arabic, Persian, and Turkish Languages, by C. F. Volney. Paris, 8vo. M. Volney proposes that the Roman characters should be substituted for the Oriental letters and vowel-points, provided they are calculated to express the same sounds; and that books, adapted to commercial purposes, should be printed in the Arabic, Persian, and Turkish languages, thus altered. He likewise proposes that there should be single and appropriate characters for all the sounds, whether consonants, short or long vowels, or diphthongs. These improvements are illustrated at considerable length by the author, but are supposed better calculated for the immediate necessities of the commercial man, than for the deeper researches of the scholar.

Traité complet, &c. Complete Treatise on Osteology, according to the Method of Default, by Hyacinthe Gavart, his Pupil. Second edition. To which is added, a Treatise on the Ligaments. 2 vols. 8vo. Paris. This is a very full collection on the subject; but the author has advanced some opinions not sufficiently confirmed by experience, and, on the whole, appears chiefly in the light of a respectable compiler, and admirer of his late master.

Pasigraphie, &c. Pasigraphy, or Elements of the Art of Writing and Printing in one Language, so as to be understood in any other without Translation.—Such is the title of a work which is proposed to be printed at Paris by subscription; the author unknown. It is to teach a language that is merely written, and not to be spoken. The author avers that it may be learned in a few hours, containing only twelve characters, which are totally different from the letters of all languages, and twelve general rules, which are precise, and applicable without any exception. It is impossible for us to give our readers any idea of this work, although the utility of it would be of infinite importance. In one of the French Journals, however, we find the following intimation of the nature of the plan: “It will be,” says he, “with pasigraphy, as with geography, where a certain point of intersection denotes a town, or an island. Let the town, &c. be called either Constantinople or Stamboul, Londres or London, Paris or Parigi, &c. those who can take, at the first glance, the longitude and latitude, will immediately name the country, the province, and the place, every one in his own language.”

G E R M A N Y.

Predigten mit Ruecksicht, &c. Sermons adapted to the Occurrences and Spirit of the Times, by Josias Fred. Christian

tian Læffler, 8vo. 1795. Gotha. These are excellent sermons of the moral kind.

J. T. V. Selig, M. Plav. *Observationes, &c.* Medical Observations on some very difficult Diseases, by J. T. V. Selig, Physician at Plawe, 8vo. Leipzig, 1795. In this work, the author's intention appears to have been to offer more accurate observations, more nice discrimination of symptoms, and a more close investigation of the causes of the diseases he writes upon, than has been afforded in former works. He ascertains, with great precision, the circumstances under which the medicines prove beneficial or injurious, and has given a number of very interesting remarks.

Versuch einer, &c. Sketch of a Pragmatic History of Physic, by Kurt Sprengel, 8vo. 3 vols. 1794, Hall. This work is divided into the following heads, 1. The Origin of Physic. 2. Physic of the Egyptians before Psammitichus. 3. Physic of the Greeks, from Chiron the Centaur, to Hippocrates. 4. From Hippocrates to the School of the Methodists. 5. History of Physic from the School of the Methodists to the Decline of Science. 6. From the Decline of Science to the Revival of Medical Study under the Arabians. 7. From the Arabian Schools to the Revival of the Physic of the Greeks. 8. History of the Hippocratic Schools of the Sixteenth Century. 9. The Reform of Paracelsus. 10. History of Surgery in the Sixteenth Century. 11. History of the principal Anatomical Discoveries down to the Time of Harvey. Mr. Sprengel, throughout the whole, connects the history of philosophy, so far as it has had any influence on the medical art.

Krankheits und, &c. History and Cure of a Steatomatous Tumour in the Neck, by Jos. Wimmer, Doctor and Teacher of Surgery and Midwifery. 8vo. 1795, Gratz. This swelling was one foot nine inches in length, and was supposed to weigh from sixteen to eighteen pounds. It hung from the jaw down the neck. It was cured by a seton passed through its whole length.

Uebersicht der, &c. Review of the most remarkable and useful Chirurgical Instruments of Ancient and Modern Times, by J. Arnmann, M. D. 8vo. 1796. Gottingen.

Neurologiæ Primordia, &c. Origin of Neurology, an Anatomico-historical Dissertation, by J. F. Harles, 8vo. 1795. Erlangen. In the course of an inquiry into what the ancients knew of the nerves, Mr. Harles determines that Plato was the first who distinguished the nerves.

Ueber Thierlicht, &c. On Animal Electricity and Irritability; and the latest Discoveries on these Subjects, by Dr. C. H. Pfaff, 8vo. Leipzig, 1795. Dr. Pfaff thinks that animal electricity is different from electricity properly so called,

though capable of being acted upon by the electric fluid ; and that irritability is a power subordinate to the proper power of the nerves ;—and inclines to ascribe to the muscular fibre a distinct power, that of contractibility, which is produced and maintained chiefly by the blood.

Gemeinnuetzige Naturgeschichte, &c. The Natural History of German Birds, for the general Use of Readers of every Description, &c. By J. Mat. Bechstein, Mine-Counsellor to the Count of Schaumburg-Lippe, Vol. III. 8vo. Leipzig, 1795. This work, which is embellished with plates, has obtained the approbation of scientific naturalists as well as common readers.

Ueber die Gesetze, &c. On the Laws of the Association of Ideas, and particularly on a Fundamental Principle of it hitherto unnoticed, by C. J. Bardili. 8vo. 1796, Tubingen. Mr. Bardili has discovered a law of completement, which pervades all nature, and to which he refers all the modes of the association of ideas, as to an endeavour to make a perfect whole.

J. D. Michaelis Literarischer, &c. The Literary Correspondence of J. D. Michaelis, arranged and published by J. Gott. Buhle. Vol. III. 8vo. 1796. The correspondents in this volume are Michaelis, Busching, Von Celse, Winkelmann, Lowth, Woide, Von Hoepfen, Bryant, Seegner, Weppler, C. D'Orvilliers, Olavus Rabenius, Capperonier, Williams, Kennicott, Adler, Scheid, Dobrowsky, Linnaeus, Norberg, and Forster.

Miscellaneen, &c. Miscellaneous Tracts on the Antiquities, History, and Statistics of Germany, by J. H. Mart. Ernesti. 8vo. 1794, Hall. Most of these have been printed before, separately, or in the Journals.

Versuch einer, &c. Sketch of an Introduction to the Method of teaching the Deaf and Dumb to speak, by J. F. G. Senfe. 8vo. 1794, Leipzig. The work contains the result of the author's inquiries on this curious subject, and his own method.

Historische Nachricht, &c. Historical Memoirs of the teaching of the Deaf and Dumb, and also of Blind Persons. 8vo. 1794, Leipzig. These historical Memoirs relate to the progress of the school for deaf and dumb persons formerly under the care of the late Mr. Heinicke, and now under that of his widow.

Denkürurdigkeiten, &c. Memoirs of Physic and Midwifery, extracted from the Journals of the Royal Practical Establishment for teaching these Sciences, by Dr. Fred. Benj. Ossander, Professor at Gottingen, 2 vols. 8vo. 1795. Gottingen. A valuable work, containing some new inventions in midwifery, and many judicious remarks.

Revision des Vorzüglichern, &c. Review of the principal Difficulties in the Theory of Electricity, particularly what relates to two Kinds of it; in Letters published by L. L. 8vo. Leipzig.

Beschreibung, &c. Description of the Town of Saltzburg, and surrounding District, with its Ancient History, by L. Huebner, 2 vols. 8vo. 1793. A very accurate account of one of the famous cities in Germany.

Fordern Große, &c. Do great Virtues or great Vices require the greater Powers of Mind? A Philosophical Dialogue, by G. Henrici. 8vo. 1795. Leipzig. Our author's opinion is, that true virtue alone denotes greatness of mind.

Neue Abhandlungen, &c. New Memoirs of the Royal Bohemian Society of Sciences, Vol. II, 4to. Prague, 1795. The following are some of the papers in this volume: Remarks on the Worms inhabiting Hydatids in the Liver, by Professor Prochaska. Remarks on the Degrees of Heat in the high Furnace; and the Influence of the State of the Atmosphere on Metallurgic Operations, by Count Sternberg. Description of an Anemometrograph, which notes down the different Directions of the Wind in the Absence of the Observer, by the Chevalier Landriani. Solution of some Problems respecting the Eclipse, by Baron Pakassi. Description of an Instrument for measuring the Percussion of a Stream of Water, by Mr. Woltmann. The Elevation of the Pole at the Royal Observatory at Prague examined by the Altitude of the Sun and Stars, by Aldys David. On a new elastic Resin from Madagascar, by J. Mayer. Descriptions and Figures of the Ramphastos Viridis, and the Momota Lin. by Dr. Spalowsky. Theory of the Force of Percussion applied to Water-wheels, by Professor Gerstner. An Account of a Journey to Sweden in 1792, undertaken at the Request of the Society, by Dobrowski, in order to search for Miss. taken away at the Sacking of Prague by General Koenigsmark, and sent to Sweden.

Pragmatische Uebersicht, &c. Philosophical View of the Theology of the later Jews, by Politz, Second Professor of Morals and History at the Equestrian Academy at Dresden. 8vo. 1795, Leipzig. This volume contains only the prolegomena to a greater work.

Predigten, &c. Sermons adapted to the Spirit and Wants of the Times, by C. G. Ribbeck. 8vo. 1796, Leipzig. Recommended for their taste and elegance.

Locke on Toleration has been translated into the German language, and published at Leipzig.

Anfangsgründe der Medicinischen, &c. Elements of Medical Anthropology, and Medical Policy and Jurisprudence, by Dr. Just Christian Loder. 2d Edit. 8vo. 1794, Weimar.

This

This edition contains an enumeration of the most important writings on the subject, since the publication of the first in 1791.

Neue Bemerkungen, &c. New Experiments and Observations in Physic and Surgery, by Dr. J. C. A. Theder, 1795, Leipzig.

Magazin für die, &c. Repository of Pathological Anatomy and Physiology, by A. F. Hecker, Part I. 8vo. Altena, 1796. The plan of this work is, to contain important anatomico-pathological cases; physiologico-pathological inquiries into the state of the organs and animal substances in diseases, with regard to their qualities, mixture, powers, and exertion of their powers; experiments and observations on the human body, exposed to certain unusual impressions, in order to know their effects; experiments with medicines and poison on men and brutes; dissections of living animals in various states; examinations of the results of these inquiries with respect to physiology, diagnostics, semeiotics, and therapeutics; review of ancient and modern writings on pathological anatomy and physiology.

Monographia Bombyliorum, &c. Description of the Bombylii of Bohemia, illustrated with Plates, by J. C. Mikan, M. D. 8vo. 1796, Prague.

Nomenclator Entomologicus, &c. The Entomological Nomenclator, drawn up according to the System of Fabricius, with the Addition of such Species as have been lately discovered, and the Varieties, by Fred. Weber. 8vo. 1795, Hamburg. In this work the order *agonata* is completely reformed. The genus *cancer* is divided into twelve new genera, and *asflcus* into six.

Betrachtungen, &c. Reflections on the Fertility or Barrenness, and ancient and present State, of the principal Countries in Asia, by C. Meiners, Aulic Counsellor, Vol. I. 8vo. 1795, Leipzig. This volume contains the western part of Asia; and a second will contain the remainder. It is intended as an introduction to an inquiry into the origin, bodily form, way of thinking, &c. of the people by whom Asia has been inhabited in our times, or who, not long before, peopled it.

Gotha, und, &c. Gotha and its Environs, by A. Klebe, with Plates. 8vo. 1796, Gotha.

Ueber die Rettung, &c. On saving Movables and Household Furniture in cases of Fire; an Essay, which obtained a Prize from the Society of Sciences at Gottingen, by J. Melchior Moeller. 8vo. 1796, Erfurt.

Neue Beyträge, &c. New Memoirs of the Ancient History of Printing in Bohemia, with a complete View of every thing

thing pertaining to it, dated in the 15th Century, by C. Ungar. 4to. 1795, Prague.

Questionum Philologicarum, &c. Specimen of Philological Questions, by H. C. A. Eichstädt. 4to. 1796, Leipzig. The author confines himself here to Theocritus only, and displays much critical skill and judgment, particularly in his emendations.

Codex MS. &c. An Account of a MS. of the Epistles of Peter de Vincis, in the Episcopal Library at Zeitz, by M. C. J. Mueller, 4to. 1794, Leipzig.

De Corpore, &c. On Gruter's Inscriptions (with Notes and Observations by T. Reinefins), by M. C. J. Mueller, 4to. 1793, Leipzig. Mueller has also published on B. Bertram, a learned philologer of the 17th century, and on Suidas. He severely attacks Olearius, the publisher of notes on Suidas.

Braga und Hermode, &c. Braga and Hermode, *i. e.* Apollo and Mercury, or a New Magazine of German Antiquities relative to Language, Arts, and Morals, Vol. I. Part I. 8vo. 1796, Leipzig. This is a revival of the Bragur of Mr. Bockh.

Beyträge, &c. Fragments of the History of the Middle Age, by J. Ern. C. Schmidt, Vol. I. 8vo. 1796, Gießen. These fragments consist of the life and character of Boniface, the apostle of the Germans; a conjecture that he was one of the principal instruments that placed Pepin on the throne; proofs that the coronation of Charlemagne at Rome was an intrigue of Leo. III. The epithet of Great is taken from Charles, and given to Gregory VII.

C. A. Tiedge, &c. The Works of C. A. Tiedge, Vol. I. 8vo. 1796, Göttingen. This volume consists of poetical epistles of the moral kind.

Des Herrn C. V. Ayrenhoff, &c. Works of Cornelius Ayrenhoff. 4 vols. 8vo. 1796, Vienna. The first three volumes consist chiefly of plays, which have considerable merit. Vol. IV. contains a series of letters on the moral and political state of Italy, written in the years 1785—1786. He remarks, of the Italians, that, in case of a war, little could be expected from them.

Commentationes Theologicæ, &c. Theological Comments published by J. Casp. Velthusen. 2 vols. 8vo. Leipzig. These relate to the explanation of the scriptures, and to ecclesiastical history; they are the production of various authors, Rheinhard, Schrurrer, Ruperti, Rosenmüller, &c. &c.

J. Dav. Michaelis, &c. Small Tracts of J. D. Michaelis. 8vo. Jena. This volume contains, a Letter on the Chronology, from the Flood to the Time of Solomon; Observations

on the Chronology, from Abraham to the Departure of the Jews from Egypt; further Elucidation of the Opinion of Le Clerc, on the Hour of our Saviour's Crucifixion; and a Commentary on the Cherubs of the Hebrews.

Paulinæ Græciæ Descriptio, Græce. An Edition of Paulanias, in Greek, by J. Fred. Facius, 2 vols. 8vo. Leipzig, 1795. This edition has many accurate emendations and improvements, but is censurable for omitting some of the most important observations in the edition of Kuhn, and having no Latin translation.

Memorabilien, &c. Memorabilia, a Philosophico-theological Work, by Professor Paulus, Vol. VII. 8vo. 1795. We have already noticed the former volumes of this work. The present contains, Results of Fulda's Free Inquiry into the Canon of the Old Testament; Dissertation on the Gift of Tongues on the first Day of Pentecost, by Professor Schmidt, of Ulm; an Essay on Daniel IX. 21. &c. by J. E. Ch. Schmidt; Disquisition on the Number 40 in the Old Testament, by Bruns, &c. &c.

Die Schriften, &c. The Writings of St. John, translated and explained, by S. G. Lange, Vol. I. 8vo. New Strelitz. This contains the Apocalypse only, which Mr. Lange considers as the earliest genuine production of John. In it we have an introduction, a literal version, and a grammatico-historical illustration.

J. Aug. Ernesti Observationes, &c. J. A. Ernesti's Philologico-critical Observations on the Clouds of Aristophanes, and Josephus's Antiquities; to which are added Olearius's Notes on Suidas. 8vo. 1795, Leipzig. These posthumous works of Ernesti are published by J. Ch. G. Ernesti, of Leipzig.

ITALY.

Le Pitture, &c. Representation of an ancient Earthen Vase, found in Magna Græcia, and belonging to His Royal Highness Prince Stanislaus Poniatowski; with an Explanation, by Em. Qu. Visconti. Fol. 1794, Rome. From the decorations on this vase, which was found near Bari in Apulia, it appears that arabesques, with animals issuing out of foliage, are more than 2000 years old, and were used by the Greeks before the time of Alexander.

Biblioteca Ecclesiastica, &c. 2 vo's. 8vo. Pavia, 1795. A collection of miscellaneous tracts, the most valuable of which are historical.

Fondamenti della, &c. Elements of the Chemico-physical Science, by Vincenzo Dandolo. 8vo. 1795, Venice. This work partakes of the nature of an elementary treatise,
and

and of a dictionary, and is well calculated to diffuse a knowledge of chemistry in parts where it has hitherto been rather neglected. The author is a professed advocate for the antiphlogistic system.

PRUSSIA.

Tables Généalogiques, &c. Genealogical Tables of the One Thousand and Twenty-four Quarters of their Royal Highnesses the Princes of Prussia, Grandsons or his Majesty Frederic William II. King of Prussia, by the Prince de Bethune. Folio, 1795, Berlin. A work obviously of very confined utility.

Reise eines Liefländers, &c. A Journey from Riga to Warsaw, through Southern Prussia, and through Breslau, Dresden, Carlsbad, Bayreuth, Nuremberg, Ratisbon, Munich, Saltzburg, Lintz, Vienna, and Klagenfurt, to Botze in Tyrol, by a Livonian. 8vo. 1795-6, Berlin. A work replete with amusing remarks, and considerable information respecting the characters of the principal persons concerned in the Revolution of Poland.

Ueber Genf, &c. On Geneva and the Lemman Lake, by C. A. Fischer. 8vo. 1796, Berlin. This work contains many remarks on the state of politics at Geneva, and characters of the principal actors in the late disturbances.

Luther's Pädagogik, &c. Luther's Pedagogics, or Thoughts on Education and Scholastic Discipline, collected from Luther's Writings, by Dr. Fred. Gedihe. 8vo. 1792, Berlin.

Codicis Manuscripti N. T. &c. An Examination of the Ravian Greek MS. of the New Testament, preserved in the King's Library at Berlin; by Ge. Gottl. Pappelbaum. 8vo. 1796, Berlin. Mr. Pappelbaum proves that the Ravian MS. is no more than a compilation from two printed editions.

S. T. Sömering über, &c. S. T. Soemmering on the Organ of the Soul. 4to. 1796, Königsberg. Mr. Soemmering is of opinion that the fluid contained in the ventricles of the brain is the sensorium commune, or seat of the soul.

Darstellung des Jetzigen, &c. Picture of the present War between Germany and France, with a particular View to the Part taken in it by Prussia, to the Conclusion of the Treaty of Peace at Basle, by J. E. Küster. 8vo. 1796, Berlin. This is a defence of the measures of the Prussian court, and compiled, no doubt, under its auspices.

Versuche einer Geschichte, &c. Sketch of a History of Dantzic, from authentic Documents and Manuscripts, by Dr. Dan. Grolath. 3 vols. 1789-91, Königsberg.

H O L L A N D.

Het Boek Job, &c. The Book of Job, translated from the Hebrew, with Observations, by H. A. Scultens; published and completed after his Death by M. Muntinghe. 8vo. 1794, Amsterdam. M. Scultens contends that the book of Job was not written after the captivity, and that the two first chapters are a modern addition, first made when this book was admitted into the canon of the Jewish church.

Verhandelingen en Waarneemingen, &c. Essays and Observations on Natural History, chiefly relating to our own Country, by J. Florentius Martinet, Fellow of the Dutch Society of Sciences. 8vo. 1795, Amsterdam. These contain some useful materials for a natural history of the United Provinces, and, if we mistake not, have already been printed in the Haarlem Transactions.

R U S S I A.

Materialien zur Kenntniss, &c. Materials towards a Knowledge of the Russian Empire, published by H. Storch. Vol. I. 8vo. 1796, Riga.

Ueber den ersten, &c. On the first Campaign of the Russian Army against the Prussians in the Year 1757, published from the original Record of General J. H. Von Weymarn, by A. W. Hupel. 8vo. 1794, Riga. This is a work of great authority and information, and relates to an interesting period of the seven years' war.

S W E D E N.

Anmärkningar til Sweriges, &c. The Maritime Law of Sweden, by Jaf. Alb. Flintberg. 4to. 1794, Stockholm. The same translated into German by Dr. E. F. Hagemeister, who proves that the Swedish laws are not applicable to the German provinces of Sweden.

S W I T Z E R L A N D.

Politische Wahrheiten, &c. Political Truths, by Fred. Ch. Baron Von Moser. 2 vols. 8vo. 1796, Zurich. Baron Moser's zeal for liberty is curiously contrasted by his obstinate adherence to the dogmatic system of the church. In other respects he is a moderate writer, and averse to popular licentiousness as well as courtly tyranny.

Salomon Gefner, &c. Solomon Gefner's Life, by J. J. Hottinger. 8vo. 1796, Zurich. A correct account of the life of this celebrated man, though from the hand of rather a partial friend.

A R E V I E W
OF
P U B L I C A F F A I R S,
F R O M
SEPTEMBER to the End of the Year 1796.

F R A N C E.

THE negotiation for a general peace, which has lately been carried on at Paris, has excited not only the attention of the people of Great Britain, but of Europe in general. To the progress and circumstances of this negotiation it will be requisite to pay the most candid attention; and though it may justly be considered as too great a sacrifice, to expect us to throw off every prejudice and partiality in favour of our native country, yet, by considering the great political interests of Europe in opposition to the local claims and separate interests of Great Britain, we may be enabled to take a sufficiently enlarged view of the subject, and to form a conclusion which will probably be as impartial as the limited faculties of man, and the unconquerable influence of the selfish passions; will permit.

To every reader of history, "the political balance of Europe" is a phrase which must be sufficiently familiar. The inordinate ambition incident to the rulers of great states has always rendered it necessary to erect barriers against their encroachments, and to balance the passions and interests of mankind in such a manner that they may act in counterpoise to each other for the general advantage and safety of the great commonwealth of Europe. The disadvantages,

vantages, indeed, attending very extensive territory (as in-
 stanced in the splendid example of the Roman govern-
 ment), it might have been expected, would have operated to
 deter even rulers themselves from the visionary and unpro-
 fitable project of universal empire. Yet the vanity of men
 is too often superior to their sense of interest; and this pro-
 ject has not only been entertained by one of the ablest and
 most powerful princes that modern history presents to our
 view, the emperor Charles Vth, but by one who was greatly
 his inferior in talents as well as in resources, Louis XIVth
 of France. The balance of Europe was originally main-
 tained by a confederation, chiefly of the protestant states
 of Germany, supported by one or other of the great powers,
 according to circumstances and situation. Several causes,
 however, have latterly concurred to render any similar
 league of little consequence; the petty states of Europe are
 become too insignificant, and, from the want of a strong
 bond of union (such as religion), too little united, to be
 able to form the least counterpoise to the ambition of the
 great states. Spain is no longer a military power; Great
 Britain being only potent on the sea, can effect little to-
 wards maintaining the independence of the continental
 states; the resources of Turkey are no longer such as to
 render her either formidable as an enemy, or effective as an
 ally; and the Northern states are almost in a similar situa-
 tion. If France, therefore, as Mr. Burke announced in a
 former publication, had been really blotted out of the map
 of Europe, and if the alliance between Russia, Austria, and
 Prussia, had still existed, these powers might have parti-
 tioned the whole of Europe, with almost the same facility
 that they divided Poland. To crush entirely the power of
 France, therefore, whatever her form of government, would
 not be the act of a wise statesman, since she forms the only
 effectual barrier against the ambition of three states, which,
 from local interests, are naturally united, and, from their
 power and resources, are truly formidable to Europe. The
 immense accession of territory, and, what is more, of popu-
 lation, gained by each of these powers in the late partition
 of Poland, serves to render them in every respect still more
 formidable. It should never be forgotten by a statesman,
 that *each* of them has acquired, by that transaction, a terri-
 tory equal to England in extent, the most fertile of Europe,
 and containing between three and four millions of people.

It should be remembered also, that these are not held by a precarious tenure, such as that by which Austria retained the Netherlands, according to the *joyeuse entrée*, but as a conquered people, and in the strong fetters of military despotism.

In this state of public affairs, we do not hesitate to pronounce that it would *not* have been the object of a great statesman, in the character of prime minister of Great Britain, to secure all the interests and power of the house of Austria, much less to sacrifice to it any essential advantage; it would rather have been his object to circumscribe its power within, or nearly within, its ancient limits, by detaching from it the provinces of Brabant and Flanders; it would also have been his object to raise up some fifth independent power, which might form a useful check-wheel at least in the great political machine; and this would have been completely effected by the union of the Flemish provinces with the Dutch republic. The interests of the house of Orange might have been safely left to the operations of time; since it never can be to the advantage of any prince to owe his restoration to external force only, and not to the will of the people. Thus a power would have been constituted, consisting of a population of between six and seven millions of industrious and opulent inhabitants, between the great empires of Austria and France, which would have been a medium of commerce, and a useful check on the ambition of its neighbours.

Against this rational and advantageous arrangement for Europe, there were two impediments in the late negotiation. First, the finances of France being in some degree implicated with the possession of the Netherlands; and, secondly, the absurd and ill-advised treaty between the emperor and Great Britain, "that neither party shall lay down their arms, till the territories conquered from either by the French shall be completely restored."

If the unreasonable prejudices of the British minister against the Dutch people could have permitted him to pay that attention to the interests of Holland which sound policy demanded, he might then have been allowed to look a little to his own. In a moral view, we may join with the œconomists in deprecating the evils of an overgrown commerce; but (unfortunately perhaps) circumstances are now

such, that the very existence of Great Britain seems to depend on the maintenance of its commerce. If, therefore, so advantageous a concession had been made to the Batavian republic, as that of an union with Belgium (an union, which, we have authority for saying, is desired by both parties), England might reasonably have demanded for itself the possession of Ceylon and the Cape of Good Hope, and thus would have divided the spice trade, &c. with the Dutch republic. In return, too, for the peaceable attainment of the whole of St. Domingo, there is reason to believe that the French would willingly have ceded Martinico to Great Britain, a possession invaluable in time of war, and scarcely less profitable in time of peace. Many and great advantages might also have been obtained in a general treaty of commerce with France; and these, though not a complete indemnity for our losses and expenses during a disastrous war, would yet, it must be confessed, have rendered the evil more tolerable.

Upon what plan, or with what view, it was determined in the British cabinet to sacrifice all these advantages to the interests of the house of Austria, we are utterly at a loss to conjecture.—But this we will venture to affirm, and on this assertion we are willing to stake our reputation, that the terms proposed by our ambassador (which our ministers knew, before they were proposed, would not be accepted*) were infinitely more disadvantageous to Great Britain and to Europe, than those which we have now sketched as the basis of a treaty, and which, we have the utmost reason to believe, would have been complied with.—But it is time to pass from speculation to narrative, and to give our readers a short history of this unfortunate negotiation.

Lord Malmebury, who was appointed by the British government on the important mission which was to restore peace to Europe, left London on the 15th of October. On the 24th, he presented to M. Delacroix, the negotiator on the part of the French republic, a memorial pressing the establishment of a general principle, as a basis for definitive arrangements. In the first conference after the delivery of this memorial, it was demanded of the British negotiator, whether he was furnished with powers and instructions

* See the answer to Mr. Wickham's note, in our Appendix to Vol. XVI. p. 586.

from the other belligerent powers to negotiate in their name? His lordship answered in the negative; but added, that when the directory should have explained themselves relative to the principle laid down in his memorial, he would dispatch couriers to instruct the different courts in the state of the negotiation, and to receive their orders. The English ambassador was then asked, whether he could not at least specify the principle of retrocessions which concerned the French republic and Great Britain? His lordship replied, that after the directory should have explained itself, he would likewise send couriers for instructions upon this point. When these proceedings in the negotiation were made known to the executive directory by M. Delacroix, they desired him to acquaint lord Malmesbury that they regarded his propositions as offering nothing but dilatory or very distant means of coming to the desired conclusion; they expressed their belief that the British government meant, by the present propositions, only a renewal, under a more amicable form, of Mr. Wickham's proposals last year; they disagreed with the memorial respecting the subject of the basis of negotiation, which ought not to relate to the principle of cession, but to the common necessity of a just and solid peace; nevertheless, they would not reject any means of reconciliation; and intimated, that as soon as lord Malmesbury should produce to them sufficient powers from the allies of Great Britain to stipulate for their respective interests, they would give a speedy answer to the propositions which might be submitted to them.

Lord Malmesbury, on the 11th of November, having received some further instructions from his court, presented another note to M. Delacroix, importing, that, with regard to the injurious and offensive insinuations contained in the last answer of the directory, the king had thought it far beneath his dignity to allow any reply whatever to be returned on his part. M. Delacroix, in the name of the directory, returned an abrupt answer the same day, desiring that the English ambassador would point out directly the objects of reciprocal compensation which he had to propose; and reminded him that the breaking off of the armistice by the emperor and king was no sign of a disposition in him to conclude a peace upon equitable terms.

The correspondence which immediately succeeded was truly insignificant, and beneath the importance of the ne-

gotiation. Lord Malmesbury, however, at length perceiving the growing necessity of obtaining further instructions from his court, dispatched Mr. Ellis, secretary of the embassy, to London, in the month of November, for that purpose.

Every impartial observer must have perceived, that, even at the commencement of the negotiation, both the negotiating powers were aware that it was likely to break off without the desired effect: the British cabinet probably knew that they had terms to offer which would not be acceded to; and M. Delacroix, from the hesitation and delay in the English ambassador whenever he was pressed to deliver the actual proposals, inferred that the British minister had some indirect purposes to answer by delay.

In order to expedite the delivery of the British ultimatum, the executive directory, on the 27th of November, ordered their minister Delacroix to inform lord Malmesbury, that they then made a formal and positive declaration through him, of their having agreed to the proposed principle of compensation and mutual concession, desiring his lordship, at the same time, "to designate, without the least delay, and expressly, the objects of reciprocal compensation which he had to propose." Lord Malmesbury, in answer to this urgent request, replied, that he would, without delay, send for the instructions of his court upon this important point.

On the 17th of December, the British plenipotentiary delivered to M. Delacroix a confidential memorial, containing the principal objects of restitution, compensation, and reciprocal arrangements. This paper, in the series of correspondence, is numbered 28, and contains the proposals of his Britannic majesty.

First, his majesty demands the restitution to his majesty the emperor and king, of *all his dominions*, on the footing of the *status ante bellum*.

2. The establishment of peace between the Germanic empire and France, conformable to the general safety of Europe.

3. The evacuation of Italy by the French troops, with an engagement not to interfere with the internal affairs of that country, which should be established, as far as possible, upon the footing of the *status ante bellum*.

In the course of the negotiation, a more detailed discussion

sion was to be entered into of the farther measures which it might be proper to adopt respecting the objects of these three articles.

Second. With regard to the other allies of his Britannic majesty, his majesty demanded that there should be reserved to her majesty the empress of all the Russias, a full and unlimited power of taking part in this negotiation whenever she might think fit, or of acceding to the definitive treaty, and thereby returning to a state of peace with France.

Third. His Britannic majesty demanded, that her most faithful majesty might be comprehended in this negotiation, and might return to a state of peace with France without any cession or burdensome conditions on either side.

Fourth. On these conditions his majesty offered to France the entire and unreserved restitution of all the conquests which he had made on that power in the East and West Indies. His majesty offered, in like manner, the restitution of the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, and of the fishery of Newfoundland, on the footing of the *status ante bellum*. But if, in addition to this, his majesty were to wave the right given to him by the treaty of Utrecht, of opposing the cession of the Spanish part of St. Domingo to France, his majesty, it was intimated, would then demand, in return for this concession, a compensation which might secure, in some degree, the maintenance of the balance of the respective possessions in that part of the world.

Fifth. In all the cases of cession or restitution which might come in question in this negotiation, there was to be granted on each side, to all individuals, the most unlimited right to withdraw, with their families and their property, and to sell their land and other immovable possessions; and adequate arrangements were also to be made, in the course of the negotiation, for the removal of all sequestrations, and for the satisfaction of the just claims which individuals of either side might have to make upon either government.

The next paper in the series of this negotiation is No. 29, entitled a confidential memorial on the peace with Spain and Holland, and, in reality, is a second part of the preceding memorial. It states the conditions on which his Britannic majesty wishes to include those two powers in a general peace. Respecting Holland, it asserts, "that his Britannic majesty and his allies find themselves too nearly

interested in the political situation of those provinces, to be able to consent in their favour to the re-establishment of the *status ante bellum* with regard to territorial possessions, unless France could, on her part, reinstate them in all respects in the same political situation in which they stood before the war."

With respect to Spain, this memorial asserts, "That if the Catholic king should desire to be comprehended in this negotiation, or to be allowed to accede to the definitive treaty, this would meet with no obstacle on the part of his Britannic majesty."

These two papers, the principal in the whole correspondence, were delivered to M. Delacroix on the 17th of December, by lord Malmesbury, two days after the return of Mr. Ellis from London to Paris.

The two negotiators met about eleven o'clock on that day, and remained in conversation upon this important topic till about one. M. Delacroix, after reading the confidential memorial with much attention, said, "that it appeared to him to be liable to insurmountable objections; that it seemed to him to *require* much more than it *conceded*, and, in the event, not to leave France in a situation of proportionate greatness to the other powers of Europe. He said, the act of their constitution, according to the manner in which it was interpreted by the best publicists, made it impossible to do what the memorial required. The Austrian Netherlands were annexed to France; they could not be disposed of without throwing the nation into all the confusion which must follow a convocation of the primary assemblies." The purport of lord Malmesbury's reply was, "That, by the treaties existing between his Britannic majesty and the emperor, the two contracting parties reciprocally promise not to lay down their arms without the restitution of all the dominions and territories which may have belonged to either of them before the war."

To this M. Delacroix replied, "That the present government would be reprehensible in the extreme, and deserve impeachment, if they ever suffered the Netherlands to be restored; that Russia, Austria, and Prussia had, by the partition of Poland, increased their power in a most formidable degree; that England, by her conquests, had redoubled her strength, and was enabled, by her Indian empire alone, to subsidise all the powers of Europe against France; and that

her monopoly of trade had put her in possession of a fund of inexhaustible wealth."

In the course of this conversation, lord Malmesbury informed the French minister, that he must not harbour any expectation that his majesty would relax, or ever consent to see the *Netherlands remain a part of France*.

The day after this conversation, lord Malmesbury received a note from the directory, through the hands of M. Delacroix, desiring him to sign the confidential note, which had been sent without a signature, and to deliver, within twenty-four hours, his *ultimatum*, signed by him. His lordship having complied with the former request, received, on the 19th of December, a note from the directory, informing him, in answer to his two notes of the 17th and 19th of December, "That the French executive directory will listen to no proposals contrary to the constitution, to the laws, and to the treaties which bind the republic." His lordship was also ordered, in this note, *to depart from Paris in eight and forty hours*.

In our last Appendix, after relating the events which occurred in five successive days of victory, we left the celebrated general Buonaparte in possession of almost all the emperor's dominions in Italy, except the city of Mantua, and the imperial troops seeking shelter in Roveredo and the defiles of the Tyrolese.

Soon after these transactions, general Wurmser, with great intrepidity and skill, collected the forces under his command, and, with considerable reinforcements, attempted to recover the lost dominions of his imperial master. On the 9th of September, he was informed of the arrival of a large body of French troops at Vicenza, under the command of general Massena; he immediately found it necessary to desile along the Adige, which he crossed at Porto Legnago. On the next day, Massena passed the same river at Roncon, while general Angereau marched from Padua to Porto Legnago, being under the necessity of reinforcing his left, to prevent the Austrian forces from retreating by Castel Baldo. General Buonaparte, on the 11th of September, made arrangements to cut off the retreat of general Wurmser; in order to effect this design, he ordered a wing of his army to take the village and bridge of Cerea, which they effected; but, from the circumstance of a part of the troops mistaking their road, the Austrians were enabled to rally,

and afterwards retook both the village and the bridge. The French commander in chief marched thither himself upon the first report of cannon: but it was too late. The Austrians then made good their retreat, who would otherwise have been in the utmost danger of being made prisoners. General Wurmser, during the night of the 11th, made the most rapid marches towards Mantua: early in the morning he arrived at Nogara, where he was informed that the bridges of the Molinella were cut down, and that the enemy waited for him at Castellaro; he therefore defeated their intention by defiling by the bridge of Villa Inspenta.

The French on the 10th of September attacked and took Porto Legnago; and, after some parley, the garrison, consisting of 1673 men, surrendered themselves prisoners of war. The victors found there 22 pieces of field ordnance, and 500 men who had been made prisoners by the Austrians in the battle of Cerea.

General Massena on the 14th of September marched towards Mantua, and attacked the Fauxbourg St. George; the engagement began at noon, and the French were defeated with considerable loss.

On the 15th, the French were informed that the Austrians had drawn out nearly all the garrison of Mantua to defend two posts called the Favourite, and St. George, in order to preserve the means of procuring forage for their numerous cavalry. The republican troops therefore, under general Bon, in the afternoon of the same day attacked the Austrians posted before St. George; and the French generals Pigeon, Victor, and Kilmaine, &c. marched by the right to pass the Austrians. The battle began on both sides with great spirit; the French in a short time penetrated the centre of the Austrians, carried the post of St. George, and took 3000 prisoners, with 25 pieces of cannon.

In consequence of these successes of the republicans, general Wurmser was compelled to shelter himself with all his forces in Mantua, whence he was enabled however to make some successful sorties.

The emperor, upon receiving intelligence of these disasters, immediately ordered large reinforcements to march, under the command of general Alvinzy, to the relief of general Wurmser: but the French commander was prepared for their reception. On the 6th of November, there-

fore, as general Alvinzy was on the point of pressing forward his advanced guard, Buonaparte commenced a severe action upon the whole line: night put an end to the contest, without either party having gained or lost any ground; on the next morning the French took another position. The Austrians under general Davidovitch had in the mean time made themselves masters of Trent.

This action was called the battle of the Brenta; the French and Austrian accounts were materially different as to their respective loss, and each claimed the victory; though, from an attentive consideration of the particulars, we are of opinion that the French were worsted. General Alvinzy, soon after the battle of the Brenta, formed a junction with the columns of the Tyrol, and found himself at the head of 40,000 men.

Buonaparte, not dismayed by the superiority of his antagonist, on the 15th of November advanced near to the village of Arcola with a design to attack the imperial forces; he found a bridge in his way in possession of the enemy, from which they kept up a heavy fire; the French marched up to it several times; but not having in the first instance evinced the same courage as at the bridge of Lodi, they were repeatedly repulsed; and general Angereau, with the colours in his hand, advanced in vain at the head of a column to force Arcola; determined however to gain possession of that place, general Buonaparte proceeded with all his *etat-major* at the head of Angereau's division; after recalling to their minds their brave conduct at the bridge of Lodi, he perceived a moment of enthusiasm, and wishing to take advantage of it, threw himself off his horse, seized a standard, darted at the head of the grenadiers, and ran to the bridge, exclaiming, "follow your general!" The column was shaken for a moment; the troops however were only thirty paces from the bridge, when the tremendous fire of the Austrians reached the column, and caused it to fall back at the moment when their enemies, according to this general's report, were about to run. At this instant several of the French generals were killed or wounded. Buonaparte and his principal officers were at last overpowered; the general himself was thrown with his horse into a marsh, whence, under the fire of the Austrians, he escaped with difficulty; he remounted, the columns rallied, and the imperial troops were afraid to quit their trenches.

At the approach of night the French arrived at the village of Areola, which they took, with a great number of prisoners. The next morning the Austrians attacked them at all points, but were repulsed by general Massena's column with great loss. The two armies fought again on the 17th of November with great obstinacy; and according to the French accounts, the republicans gained a complete victory on that day. The Austrians, having abandoned all their positions, retreated during the night to Vicenza. It was said that they lost during these different engagements, in killed and wounded, ten thousand men; the French had a great number in killed, but their loss in prisoners was not so great as that of their enemies: they had however no less than seven generals wounded; two of whom died of their wounds.

For a considerable time very few rencounters of importance took place in Italy between the French and Austrian armies; and at the end of the year 1796, general Wurmser remained in Mantua closely blockaded by the French.

The army of the Sambre and Meuse under general Jourdan, after their successful career in Germany, and the taking of Bamberg and Forstheim in the month of August, experienced a fatal reverse of fortune. Intoxicated with victory, and concluding the dominions of the emperor to be at their mercy, the soldiers of the French republic, it is said, sullied their name and their former glory by disorder and plunder. Strong reinforcements, and the courage of their troops, enabled the Austrians to compel their enemies to retreat. General Jourdan was obliged in a short time to abandon all his posts on the Lahn, and retire towards the Sieg.

The Austrian troops passed the Lahn in pursuit of the French, and general Kray was on the 19th of September at Herborn, and advanced towards Delenbourg and Siegen. The French in the mean time made great exertions to fortify themselves in Neuwied. On the 19th of September, general Hotze, in advancing towards Hochstetbach, found means to bring on an action with the rear guard of the French, and defeated them with considerable loss. Marsseau, a French general of division, and of distinguished merit, was wounded and taken prisoner; he soon after died, and he received from his enemies the honours due to a brave man.

A body of Austrians under count Merfeldt advanced in the mean time into the Margravate of Baden, and surprised and dispersed the troops which the French had left in that country. About this time, the archduke perceiving a proper opportunity to undertake his projected operations towards the Upper Rhine, ordered lieutenant-general Wemesh to advance on the 22d of September to Ukerath and the Sieg; and at the same time the archduke marched himself towards the Meise. He crossed the river on the 25th, and leaving a considerable reserve cantoned betwixt Mentz and Frankfort, proceeded towards the Upper Rhine.

In the mean time the French army was considerably reinforced, under general Bournonville, who was appointed by the executive directory to the chief command, in the room of general Jourdan. After overcoming considerable difficulties, this general effected a retreat across the Rhine, where no important operations have since taken place.

In our last Review of Public Affairs, we left the French army under general Moreau in possession of Stutgard; and making such rapid strides into the interior of Germany as to cause the emperor to tremble upon his throne at Vienna. Excited by terror, and aided by large sums of money from the cabinet of St. James's, the tottering monarch left no effort untried to augment his forces; and his exertions were happily seconded by the bravery of his troops and the skill of his generals, who by repeated acts of valour compelled at length an enemy to retreat, whose energy and courage gave additional brilliancy to the victory.

The operations of the French general Moreau also on this occasion, and the skill and bravery which he displayed in his retreat, have gained him the applause of most military men.

On the 10th and 11th of September he quitted his position on the left bank of the Yser; general La Tour followed him closely, and the Austrian general Nauendorf watched his motions, and on the 14th had an engagement with his rear-guard, in which the Austrians were said to have taken a thousand prisoners.

General Moreau, however, on the 17th of September, made a forward movement, drove in the Austrian outposts, and extended his line as far as Landberg on the Leck. But general Frolic with a considerable number of Austrians arrived on the 19th at Isny, where he defeated the right wing of Moreau's army.

The

The Austrians on the 20th took a position at Donauwert, and their parties extended to Ulm and Gemund. Under these circumstances, general Moreau perceived the necessity of retreating. In the night of the 20th he repassed the Leck at Augsburg and Rain; and on the 22d his head quarters were at Weisshorn, and he directed his retreat towards Ulm. On the 22d, six French commissaries, and all the people belonging to the bread department, were upon the road leading from Ulm towards Stuttgart. From several circumstances, the Austrians learnt that he intended to cross the Danube at Ulm, and retreat by Stuttgart and Constat towards Kehl: they therefore took measures to frustrate his design. Moreau, on the other hand, finding himself in this situation, abandoned Ulm on the 26th, and proceeded along the left bank of the Danube as far as Erbach, where he again crossed the river, and was supposed to direct his retreat towards the forest towns. On the last day of September he arrived near Buxau, where, early in the morning he was attacked by the Austrians at all points. The battle lasted the whole day; but the event was spoken of doubtfully. After this battle the French general continued his march towards the Rhine, without losing any of his artillery or baggage.

A part of the Austrian army had in the mean time taken post between the source of the Neckar and the Danube, by which the passes of the Black Forest were more effectually covered; and their parties incessantly harassed the rear of the French. Pressed in this manner, general Moreau perceived the extreme danger to which his further retreat was exposed, and he resolved to risk a general action.

With this view the left wing of his army crossed the Danube at Reidlingen on the 2d of October, and repassed it at Murdurkingen, and turned and defeated the troops which La Tour had posted between the Feder See and the river. The general therefore was no sooner assured of the success of his left wing, than he advanced to attack general La Tour in front; and the action was maintained during six hours with the utmost obstinacy. At length the Austrians were compelled to abandon their ground, and retreat behind the Rothambach. Though the French on this occasion were a retreating army, they took five thousand of their pursuers prisoners, and twenty pieces of cannon.

General

General Moreau, having thus far succeeded in his designs, recommenced his march on the 5th of October by the route of Stockach, and on the 8th he had his head quarters at that place. After securing the passages over the Rhine, his army marched to Fribourg, and on the 18th he had his head quarters at Furg. The Austrians however did not long permit him to remain undisturbed. As the French appeared inclined to retain a position on the right side of the Rhine, the archduke Charles attacked them on the 24th of October in the formidable position of Schlingen, and defeated them with considerable loss.

General Moreau, after this action, retired towards the Tête-de-pont, near Huningen, and on the 26th retreated across the Rhine at that place.

The Austrians, after Moreau had effected this celebrated retreat, laid siege to the fort of Kehl. On the morning of the 22d of November the French garrison made a vigorous sortie, and forced the whole line of the besiegers, spiked their artillery, and took seven hundred prisoners, among whom were thirty officers. Much blood has since been shed at this place in several subsequent attacks and sorties with great loss on both sides.

The two legislative councils have chiefly been occupied on the finances of the nation.—Some proceedings of a different character it will however be necessary to notice.

Pelet de la Lozere, on the 23d of September, in the council of five hundred, made a motion for peace, upon which the order of the day was called for. Boissy d'Anglas rose on this occasion, and said, that though he supported the order of the day, he did not disapprove of the intention of Pelet. He thought that French liberty would triumph over all its enemies; but it was of use to declare to the people, that the war into which they have been drawn was not a war of caprice, but a war of liberty.

“It was of importance, he said, to announce to all Europe the duplicity of *Pitt*, at the moment when he was soliciting new subsidies and deceiving the people of Great Britain. That people were sincerely desirous of peace: but the artful minister exclaimed, “we must continue the war, because the French do not wish for peace, until they have destroyed all the thrones of Europe.” Boissy d'Anglas concluded with observing, that these were undoubtedly the
political

political principles which had induced Pelet to make his motion; but as the discussion of the question might involve some circumstances injurious to the interests of the republic, he should move the order of the day, which passed almost unanimously.

Baileul, on the 27th of September, in the council of five hundred, called the serious attention of the council to the reiterated attempts of the conspirators. Their boldness and their impunity, he said, were equally calculated to alarm the good and peaceable citizens. He urged the necessity of repressing faction instantly, and therefore proposed to form a commission of five members to revise the laws relative to the suppression of seditious assemblages, and the mode of prosecuting and trying all those who attack the constitution and government. His proposal was adopted.

The anniversary fête of the foundation of the republic was celebrated in Paris on the 23d of September in the Champ-de-Mars, with much appropriate scenery and magnificence.

Cambaceres, in the council of five hundred, on the 19th of October, made a report in the name of a special commission, on a message of the directory, in which he called on the legislative body to secure the return of peace, by a vigorous organization of the means proper for continuing the war. "The French government," said he, "is desirous of a sincere, speedy, and honourable peace. If the enemies of the republic act with frankness and sincerity, tranquillity will soon be restored to Europe. Her wants are multiplied, it is true: but her resources are not exhausted; she has domains to alienate, and arrears to recover; she has no need of violent means; her territorial possessions are sufficient for her, and will enable her to meet both the war expenditure and the acquittal of the public debt." He then presented a series of resolutions, stating, "That there should be a fund of 450,000,000 of livres in specie for the service of the fifth year of the republic, for the fixed expenses; and another fund of 550,000,000 also in specie, for the extraordinary; that the fund for the fixed expenses should be drawn from the produce of the contributions for the fifth year. The funds for the extraordinary should be drawn from the arrears of the contributions, and from the revenue of the national domains and forests; and to complete the 550,000,000, a sufficient quantity of national domains should

should be sold by auction, and the payment made, a tenth part in specie, four tenths in schedules, and the other five tenths in government debentures.

Another resolution was, that the territorial contributions for the fifth year should be fixed at 250,000,000, to be taken from the departments; and the sumptuary contributions at 50,000,000;—also, that the members of the central and municipal administration should, as soon as possible, proceed to the collection of the direct contributions.

The executive directory on the 10th of December addressed a message to the council of five hundred, respecting the deranged state of the French finances; purporting that the multiplied wants of the republic called imperiously upon the legislative body to display and employ all her resources; that every branch of the public service experienced the utmost distress; the pay of the troops remaining unsettled; the defenders of the country suffering all the horrors of want; the creditors of the state and contractors remaining unpaid; and the administration of the police unable to repress the intrigues of the disaffected in every part of the republic. The directory, in this message, then pointed out the proper employment of the arrears due upon the last fourth part of the sale of the national domains which had been sold in pursuance of the law of the 28th Ventose, as the means of obtaining relief to the distresses of the republic.

Dumolard, in the council of five hundred on the 25th of December, observed that it had long been the wish of the council to make some regulation for the re-establishment of manners, and for the collation of abuses in the law of divorce; he moved that the committee for the classification of the laws of divorce be desired to make their report as soon as possible. A special committee was also ordered to be appointed for the purpose of examining whether it would not be prudent to suspend all divorces on account of incompatibility of temper.

Danon, on the 21st of December, in the name of a commission, read for the third time a plan upon the means of renewing, agreeably to the constitution, one third of the members of the convention in the legislature on the first of Germinal. The plan was adopted; and the following are some of its principal dispositions:

1. There shall be elected, for the present year only, a
third

third of deputies by the departments of Belgium, of Mont Blanc, and the other united countries.

2. The division of the *ci-devant* Belgium into nine departments shall be provisorily maintained.

3. A new general list shall determine the number of deputies to be elected annually by every department of the republic, in proportion to its population.

4. To obtain, as the result of the ballot, the effectual maintenance of 83 ex-members of the convention in activity in the council of elders, and of 167 members in activity in the council of five hundred.

Pastoret then reminded the council that the constitution also required the renewal of one member of the directory, and moved that a committee should devise the mode of doing so: and this was also agreed to.

G R E A T B R I T A I N.

The four months which have elapsed since our last retrospect of public affairs, have been pregnant with political events of considerable importance to the interests of Great Britain.—The rise, progress, and dissolution of a negotiation for a general peace—the evacuation of Corsica—the loss of her naval superiority in the Mediterranean—the addition of the kingdom of Spain to the catalogue of her foes—the augmentation of her national debt and taxes, and the determination to prosecute the present war till the French republic restores the Netherlands to the emperor,—are circumstances which certainly demand the most serious attention.

On the 28th of September the first session of the new parliament commenced; about a week was spent in administering the necessary oaths to the respective members, and in choosing a speaker. Mr. Addington, who filled that office during the last parliament, was unanimously re-elected with flattering marks of esteem; and the choice was formally approved by his majesty.

On the 6th of October the king came to the house of lords, and, in a speech from the throne addressed to both houses, assured them, “That it gave him peculiar satisfaction to recur to their advice, after the recent opportunity which had lately been given of collecting the sense of his people, engaged in an arduous contest for the preservation of all that was most dear;—that he had exerted every endeavour to set on foot a negotiation to restore
peace

peace to Europe; that the steps which he had taken for that purpose had at last opened the way to an immediate and direct negotiation; that he should immediately send a person to Paris with full powers to treat for peace; that the enemy had manifested an intention of attempting a descent upon these kingdoms; that, in reviewing the events of the year, they must have observed, that by the skill and exertions of the navy, our extensive and increasing commerce had been protected almost beyond example, while the fleets of the enemy were blocked up in their own ports; that the operations in the East and West Indies had been both honourable and advantageous to the nation; that the fortune of war on the continent, from the persevering exertions of his ally the emperor, and the good conduct of his forces, had lately taken such a turn as might inspire a confidence that the final result of the campaign would prove more disastrous to the enemy than its commencement and progress for a time were favourable to their hopes; that the hostile conduct of the court of Madrid had led to discussions of which he was not able to acquaint them with the result." He concluded by expressing his reliance on the commons for such supplies as they might think necessary for the service of the year.

Earl Bathurst in the upper house moved an address to his majesty, and the motion was seconded by lord Ossory. The noble mover called to the recollection of their lordships their former determination to rely upon the wisdom of the executive government, respecting a continuation of the war, and deduced from that determination a confidence that all parties would concur in an address of thanks to his majesty for his gracious intention of setting on foot a negotiation for peace.

Earl Fitzwilliam assured the house, that, as he had been an advocate for the war at its commencement, he continued so still, "because," said his lordship, "the war was undertaken to restore order, to defend the civilised states of Europe against the dangers that threatened them, to protect persons and property from a fatal devastation, and to suppress the tendency of innovating and pernicious doctrines. On these principles their lordships had engaged in, and on these principles they had supported the war. The purport of the present address, he said, was therefore to acknowledge and approve that system he had formerly re-

probated and opposed; for he desired any man to look back, and say that the same causes that existed then for the necessity of the war did not exist at present. Are you, said he, prepared to release Mr. York again, with his inflaming doctrines? Are you prepared to bring back the gentlemen at Botany Bay? For these must be done if you conclude a peace." His lordship concluded by proposing an amendment.

Earl Guildford said that he should vote for the address; but desired to have it understood that this vote was not to preclude any examination which he might be disposed to enter into hereafter concerning the conduct of ministers, in wantonly plunging us into the horrors of war.

In the lower house the address was moved for by lord Mörpeth, and seconded by sir William Lowther.

Mr. Fox said it was a matter somewhat extraordinary that his majesty should be advised, at the present moment, to adopt those pacific measures which he (Mr. Fox) had so strenuously urged to that house on former occasions. He approved of every measure which had been undertaken to bring about a negotiation for peace; but if these measures were finally crowned with success, it was impossible not to regret that they had not been adopted, before thousands, and even millions, had perished in the fatal contest.

He said, that those who composed the speech from the throne, had very carefully and very properly omitted the common-place diction, in which they had formerly indulged, respecting civil society, polished order, and the cause of religion and morality. Mr. Fox also observed, that he thought it singular, that mention had not been made in the speech, to whom the person going to Paris to negotiate was to apply; because it had been his majesty's usual practice to be more explicit: for instance, when a person was notified by him to go to the Hague on a similar business, it was generally added, "with full powers to treat with their high mightinesses the States General of the United Provinces."—Hence it might have been reasonably expected that a minister would have been sent to the executive directory of the French republic.—He concluded by remarking that he thought it necessary to the welfare of the country that the conduct of the present ministers should be inquired into on a future occasion.

Mr. Pitt went into his accustomed detail of the great resources of the country, the prosperity of its commerce, and
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the extent of its exports. The address to his majesty passed, *nemine contradicente*.

Mr. Hobart, on the 17th of October, brought up the report of the committee of supply;—that 120,000 seamen be voted for the service of the navy for the year 1797, including 20,000 marines; and also, that, towards defraying the expense thereof, 4l. per man per month be allowed, for thirteen months.

On the 18th of October, the order of the day being read for taking into consideration that part of his majesty's speech which related to the intention manifested by the enemy to attempt a descent on this country, — Mr. Pitt observed, that the house had unanimously entered, at an early part of the session, into an important resolution of following up that part of his majesty's speech. He should therefore submit to the house some propositions relative to raising men for augmenting the army and navy, raising a supplemental militia, and a body of irregular cavalry, for augmenting the internal force of the kingdom, in order to be enabled to repel any attack of the enemy.

The aggregate of Mr. Pitt's proposals on this occasion were,

To raise 15,000 men, to be divided between the army and navy;

A supplemental militia, consisting of 60,000 men;

A body of irregular cavalry, as near 20,000 men as possible; and,

A corps of 700 men, expert in the use of fire-arms, consisting of game-keepers.——In all, 102,000 men.

The chancellor of the exchequer concluded a long speech, by proposing a bill to be brought in conformable to the several proposals he had just made to the house.

Mr. Sheridan said that some explanation ought to have been given of the actual necessity of these expensive measures proposed by the minister. According to his statement, he observed, the house was placed in an embarrassed situation; for it was invited to impose serious and heavy burdens upon the people; and to detract from the industry, and suspend the labour of the poor, without any one ostensible cause, or solid proof whatever.

Mr. Fox agreed with Mr. Sheridan that no proof whatsoever had been adduced of the existence of any danger to this country from a supposed descent of the enemy. Mr.

Fox made a long and energetic speech upon this occasion, the general current of which went to prove that ministers were not afraid of an invasion; but that they augmented the domestic force of the country only that they might be enabled to detach a larger portion to pursue destructive schemes of conquest. He contended that he was warranted in drawing this deduction from some intimations to that purpose thrown out by Mr. Dundas.—All the resolutions were at length agreed to by the committee.

The house of commons, on the 21st of October, having resolved itself into a committee of supply, the secretary at war rose, and stated that the whole force of this country, consisting of the common distribution of guards, garrisons, colonies and plantations, amounted to 195,674 men, the expense of which would amount to 5,190,000*l.* so that it would appear that the expense of this year would not exceed that of the preceding. The home army for the defence of the country amounted to 60,765 men. The army abroad amounted to 64,276. The militia was nearly the same as last year, with the difference of the city regiments. He concluded with moving, “That there be employed for the land service of this year the number of 195,000 men.”

The several resolutions were put severally, and carried, *nem. con.*

The following sums were voted for the charge of 60,765 effective men:

	<i>£.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
For guards and garrisons —	1,505,905	1	0
For forces in the plantations —	1,411,231	19	5
For difference between British and } Irish pay of forces abroad }	40,096	9	9
For contingencies for land forces —	360,000	0	0
For charge of general and staff officers	94,195	14	0
For recruiting regiments in India —	33,335	18	0
For charge of embodied militia and } fencible infantry — }	950,441	3	6
For contingencies for ditto —	210,000	0	0
For cloathing for ditto —	112,811	0	0
For charge of fencible cavalry —	397,734	4	0
For allowance to ditto —	95,000	0	0

The next business of importance which engaged the attention of the commons, was Mr. Pitt's promised motion relative to the funding of the navy and exchequer bills, which he made on the 28th of October. He prefaced his
motion

motion with observing that his proposal had for its object the removal of a large mass of floating debt from the market, which had fallen to a great discount, and had consequently produced much public injury, and much private inconvenience. He said that the amount of the bills then in circulation would become payable at different periods, according to the different times at which they were issued; but the farthest periods of payment of any of the bills could not exceed fifteen months from the present time. The whole question, therefore, was, whether the navy and other bills, then outstanding, should be left a load upon the market, to be paid only at those periods when they became due; or, whether it would not be more advisable to pay them before that period, by offering to the holders such terms as might be beneficial to them. He proposed to fund all the bills then in circulation, even down to the latest period.

The amount of bills that had been issued was little less than twelve millions. As he thought this sum would be too great for one species of stock, he proposed to give an option to the holders to fund them in any of the three funds, 3, 4, or 5 per cents; for this purpose, he divided the holders into four classes, according to the date of the bills held by them; and stated, that the holders of the navy bills should have their option of any of the three kinds of stock, at a certain abatement on the present prices, according to the time of the issuing of their bills. For example, the first class, comprehending the months of October, November, and December, 1795, should have an abatement of 2 per cent. on the present price, if they chose to fund their bills in the 3 per cents; of 3 per cent. if they funded in the 4 per cents; or an abatement of 4 per cent. if they funded in the 5 per cents; and so in proportion for the other classes, the abatement diminishing according as their bills diminished in time.

In addition to this aggregate of navy bills, there were outstanding exchequer bills to the amount nearly of two millions and a half; these were to become payable in July: he proposed, therefore, to fund them in nearly the same loans as the navy bills, viz.

1½ per cent. abatement in the 3 per cents.

2½ per cent. in the 4 per cents.

3½ per cent. in the 5 per cents.

He concluded with moving, "That his Majesty be enabled to satisfy all the bills payable in the navy, victualling, and transport service to the 27th of October, 1796."

Mr. Fox and Mr. Hussey strongly contended that the plan proposed by the chancellor of the exchequer was lavishing the public money, and augmenting the national debt in an unprecedented manner. Mr. Fox clearly proved that the holders of navy and exchequer bills, by this system, would receive at the rate of 103l. interest per cent. per annum for their money! He urged that the committee ought to have a detailed account of the necessity that existed, before they voluntarily added 2 per cent. interest on so great a sum as fifteen millions to the burdens of the nation. The resolutions however were read and agreed to.

The house, on the 31st of October, went into a committee again on the same business. They divided on passing the first resolution; ayes 208, noes 48. The other resolutions also passed.

On account of the uncertainty of the issue of the negotiation for peace, and to gain time while the proposals for a loan were circulating among the monied men, the minister obtained an adjournment of the two houses till the 28th of November.

The first business of importance which engaged the attention of the house after this short adjournment, was the budget of the minister.

On the 7th of December, the house having resolved itself into a committee of ways and means, Mr. Pitt, after some preliminary observations, stated the supplies necessary for the year, the mode of their application, and the sources whence they were to be drawn.

The first great article was the navy; for this the charge for 1797 would be	-	-	-	£7,661,000
Vote of credit	-	-	-	3,000,000
For the army ordinaries and extraordinaries				10,913,000
The ordnance	-	-	-	1,623,000
Miscellaneous services	-	-	-	378,000
Deficiencies of land and malt	-	-	-	350,000
For liquidating the national debt	-	-	-	200,000
To establish a provision for any excess in the article of navy extraordinaries				2,500,000
These sums, together with some other articles which the minister				

Minister stated, made the whole supplies of the year amount to - - - - - £27,647,000

To meet this large expenditure, he proposed the following ways and means :—

Loan	-	-	-	-	18,000,000
Land and malt	-	-	-	-	2,750,000
Consolidated fund	-	-	-	-	1,275,000
Surplus of grants	-	-	-	-	420,000
Lottery	-	-	-	-	200,000
Exchequer bills	-	-	-	-	5,500,000

Total of ways and means, £27,945,000

These ways and means made a surplus of 298,000*l.* beyond the estimated supplies. On the loan and exchequer bills, Mr. Pitt said it might be necessary to observe, that, on the former, the interest was no more than 5*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* per cent. subject to further reduction, should the funds rise, as might be expected in case a peace took place. As to exchequer bills, it was intended to issue them for three months only, and to receive them in payment of the loan, and also to make them bear an interest of something more than 5 per cent. in order to get a proper divisional fraction of so much per day.

The excess of the navy debt for which interest was to be provided, was 8,250,000*l.* from which four millions, for which provision was made last year, were to be deducted. There was also a charge of 140,000*l.* which had arisen from the withdrawing of the collateral succession, and to make good which, the national faith was pledged. For these several sums the interest would amount to 2,222,000*l.* but as the East India company had engaged to pay 112,000 till the expiration of their charter, the interest to be provided for was thereby reduced to 2,110,000*l.*

The chancellor of the exchequer then entered upon the painful duty of enumerating the particular means by which this heavy burden might be borne. For this purpose he proposed to raise the sum of 2,132,000*l.* by the following new taxes :

Tea, 10 per cent. on the present amount of sales	£240,000
Coffee	30,000
Auctions	40,000
Bricks	36,000

Brandy, rum, and English spirits	-	210,000
Scotch stills	-	300,000
Articles of customs, including sugar at 2s. 6d. per cwt. pepper, oil, bar iron, &c.	}	466,000
Assessed taxes	-	290,000
Stamp duty	-	30,000
Duty on letters, stage coaches, and parcels	-	370,000
Inland navigation	-	120,000
Amount of the new duties		£2,132,000
The sum wanted is		2,110,000
Surplus remaining		£22,000

The chancellor of the exchequer next adverted to the sum of 1,200,000*l.* which had been sent to the emperor: he openly avowed that this money had been sent without taking the customary advice of parliament. He was convinced, he said, of the efficacy this aid afforded, and that to have refused it at that period, would have been to have lost all the advantages arising from the co-operation of that valiant, faithful, and persevering ally. He meant therefore to continue that assistance; for, with a view of making further advances to that ally, he had proposed three millions as a vote of credit. Mr. Pitt concluded by moving his first resolution.

Mr. Grey rose, and said that he was sorry that the house should be imposed upon by the false and deceitful statements of the chancellor of the exchequer. Among them was the amount of the exports, of which coffee made a fifth. Six millions were set down as the value of the article exported, while the quantity imported was only two or three. He then proved the inaccuracy of Mr. Pitt's calculations, by showing that the expenses always exceeded the estimates,—adverted to the deficiency of the revenue,—and concluded by saying, that the papers on the table gave notice of the approach of this country to ruin, notwithstanding the symptoms of prosperity urged by the minister.

After a few words of explanation between Mr. Pitt and Mr. Grey, Mr. Fox said that he could not permit such delusive statements to pass without observation. It was idle for Englishmen to boast of a free constitution. The present system

virtually

virtually included the abolition of the house of commons, and the creation of a dictator, who, during the war, was to levy and spend money at his discretion. Mr. Fox adverted to the sums sent to the emperor without consent of parliament. If this be the system, said he, the constitution is not worth fighting for. In the present instance, parliament has neither known the expense, nor been consulted concerning the principle; and the minister deserves to be impeached for disposing of the public money, without authority from the legal guardians of the public purse. He has aggravated his offence by omitting to disclose it on the first day of the sessions, and by withholding the army extraordinaries till the day before the budget. Mr. Fox then pointed out the uniform errors of the minister in calculating the force and finances of France, and lamented that the everlasting mistakes of one man should cost the country 150 millions of money, and rivers of blood. By the operations of this day, Mr. Fox added, the national debt would be increased to 400 millions; he concluded by observing, that these topics should be discussed more at large on a future occasion.

The resolutions moved by the chancellor of the exchequer were then put and carried, and the report ordered to be received next day.

On the 8th of December, Mr. Hobart brought up the report of the ways and means, and moved that the resolutions be read a second time.

Mr. Fox rose, and said that what he meant to advert to upon this occasion, was the degraded situation of the house with respect to the executive power. A servant of the crown, in contempt of law, had sent 1,200,000*l.* to Germany; and till the house had solemnly pronounced on the minister's conduct, he should deem himself a traitor to his country if he agreed to vote either a man or a shilling. In the case in question, ministers had been guilty of a direct breach of the constitution. They had disposed of the money, not only without convening the parliament, but without consulting it while actually sitting. Payments had been made so late as November 1796: and all this had been done, as if to show that the power resided in the servants of the crown.

Mr. Fox observed another circumstance not less singular, namely, that the house had yesterday been acquainted for the first time with the Spanish war, although it had been publicly intimated by the lord lieutenant of Ireland, though notice of granting letters of marque had appeared in the gazette, and though the newspapers were full of reports to that effect.

Mr.

Mr. Fox concluded with observing, that he should oppose the second reading of the resolutions, and, if supported, would pledge himself to bring forward a motion charging the minister with 'a high crime and misdemeanor.'

The conduct of the chancellor of the exchequer in sending money to the emperor was defended by several members of administration, and as strenuously opposed by the other side of the house. A division then took place; for the resolution 164, against it 58.

On December the 12th, Mr. secretary Dundas brought down a message from his majesty to the commons, purporting, "that all the endeavours of his majesty to preserve peace with Spain had been rendered ineffectual by an abrupt and unprovoked declaration of war by the catholic king."

Mr. Dundas, by his majesty's command, on the 13th of December, laid before the house the Spanish declaration of war, and an answer to the allegations it contained. Upon this, an address to his majesty was moved for and carried.

Mr. Fox, on the 14th of December, rose to make his promised motion relative to the money sent to the emperor. He had no hesitation in saying that the constitution had been grossly violated; nor should he have any difficulty in proving that the benefits arising from a form of government which gives the management of the public purse to parliament, are greater than those experienced under despotic authority. This general principle might afford instances of inconvenience to the executive power; and it must be admitted also, that in an estimate it was impossible to foresee all possible expenses. To make good any deficiencies, a vote of credit was granted to the minister; but in no case was he permitted to appropriate money to particular purposes without the consent of parliament. Mr. Fox supported his position by producing several citations from the "Precedents of Proceedings in Parliament by the Clerk of the House of Commons." He said, if parliament consented to sanction such proceedings, their privileges would become a ridiculous mockery. The present attack on them he considered as more dangerous than any ever made before; and if it should be approved of by the vote of that night, he declared that we should have no constitution at all. Never did the crown exercise its authority against the rights of the people more effectually than during the last two years. It had created new crimes and new treasons, abridged the liberty of the subject, and instituted a military power at which our ancestors would have shuddered. If, in addition to this, the minister were

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empowered

empowered to dispose of the public money without the consent of parliament, where was the smallest safeguard for the constitution? It remained for the house to declare their opinion on the merits of the present case. What that would be, he knew not; but he would repeat again, that if the minister's conduct was passed over, *the constitution was lost*.

Mr. Fox then made his motion to the following effect: "That his majesty's ministers, having authorised and directed, at different times, without the consent, and during the sitting of parliament, the issue of various sums of money for the service of his imperial majesty, and also for the service of the army under the prince of Condé, have acted contrary to their duty, and to the trust reposed in them, and have thereby violated the constitutional privileges of this house."

This motion was seconded by Mr. Alderman Combe.

The chancellor of the exchequer, in a speech of considerable length, defended his conduct in the present business; contended that the vote of credit covered every expenditure for every assignable purpose, even to persons not previously named; but he admitted the responsibility of ministers, and acknowledged their culpability in case of their concealing a foreseen emergency from parliament when it could be divulged with safety. But he contended, that, in the present instance, that publicity would have had a pernicious effect upon public credit. Such, he said, was the opinion of public men in the city, and of the directors of the bank. Mr. Pitt then took shelter under a number of precedents which had occurred since the beginning of the century, and which, he contended, were applicable to the cases then before the house.

He was strongly supported by the ministerial side of the house; and Mr. Fox's motion was negatived by a great majority.

General Fitzpatrick, on the 16th of December, made a laudable effort to procure the release of the unfortunate M. de la Fayette. He moved in the commons, "That an humble address be presented to his majesty, representing that the detention of M. de la Fayette and his fellow-sufferers in the prison of the emperor is injurious to the character of the allies, and to the interests of humanity; and entreating his majesty to take such measures for procuring their release, as to his royal wisdom may seem fit." The general asserted in the course of a pathetic speech, in which he described the hardships the prisoners in question had suffered, that when the wife of M. de la Fayette, with the for-

titude

titude of a Roman matron, had obtained an audience of the emperor, he gave her permission to see her husband; "but with respect to his delivery, said he, my hands are bound." Of the emperor's making this answer, he had the best evidence the case would admit of,—the hand-writing of that lady.

The observations made on this occasion by the ministerial members clearly implied that the detention of M. de la Fayette was caused by the part he had taken in the American as well as in the French revolution. The motion was therefore negatived by a great majority.

The chancellor of the exchequer, on the 17th of December, introduced to the commons a message from his majesty, purporting the importance and advantage to the cause of the allies, which would arise from empowering his majesty to continue such temporary advances for the service of the emperor as might enable him to prosecute his military operations with vigour and effect at an early period. On the 19th of December this message was taken into consideration, when the minister moved the address. This introduced a long debate, in which both sides of the house followed nearly the same track of argument as before, for and against remitting such vast sums of money from this country to the emperor.

The address being carried without a division, Mr. Pitt, the same day, in a committee of supply, moved "That a sum not exceeding 500,000*l.* should be granted to his majesty, to be remitted from time to time to his imperial majesty;" and the motion was agreed to.

The committee of the house of commons upon the Southwark election, on the 20th of December, decided upon the petition of Mr. Tierney against Mr. Thellusson's eligibility to become a representative in parliament after he had been found guilty of corruption by a former committee. By this decision, this great constitutional point is established, "That any member having been convicted of treating the voters after the teste of the writ, is *ineligible*."

The house were for several days engaged in forwarding the bills before them: and nothing of importance occurred till the 26th of December; when Mr. secretary Dundas presented a message from his majesty, importing "That his majesty, with great concern, acquainted the commons that his earnest endeavours to effect the restoration of peace had been unhappily frustrated, and that the negotiation in which he had been engaged had been abruptly broken off by the peremptory refusal of the French government to treat, except upon a basis evidently inadmissible, and by their hav-

ing,

ing, in consequence, required his majesty's plenipotentiary to quit Paris within forty-eight hours," &c.

This message was taken into consideration on the 30th of December.

Mr. Pitt entered into a long historical detail of the rise and progress of the negotiation for peace, animadverting, as he proceeded through every stage of it, upon the conduct of the French directory. He noticed their captious demand to sign the credentials, and their peremptory mandate for the departure of lord Malmesbury, when they ought to have renewed the discussion, with a view of explaining away discordances of opinion, and softening down extravagant demands. Their requisition for an *ultimatum* was, he said, calculated to preclude all negotiation. He concluded by moving the address, which was a mere reverberation of the message.

The opposition side of the house strongly urged the fatal consequences which might ensue to this country by carrying on the war until the emperor had recovered Belgium from the French. They pointed out, with great ability, the misconduct of his majesty's ministers in not embracing the many favourable opportunities which had formerly offered of making an advantageous peace with France, particularly at the time when the emperor was in possession of Belgium, and before he had lost his dominions in Italy, and while the chain of the grand alliance was entire, which was now broken by the secession of the major part of its members. They added that an unjustifiable interference on the part of his majesty's ministers, in attempting to establish a form of government in France contrary to the will of the people, had been the grand source whence all the past calamities of Europe, proceeding from the war, might be said to flow.

Mr. Fox moved an amendment to the address, upon which the house divided,—ayes 37, noes 212. The house then adjourned to the 14th of February next.

Sir Gilbert Elliot, from the prevailing discontents in the island of Corsica, and from the diminution which the British power had suffered in the Mediterranean by the shutting of almost all the Italian ports against the English, was ordered by the administration to evacuate Corsica. Accordingly, the viceroy, with all the troops he could bring away, took refuge in Porto-Ferrajo in the month of October. The French immediately entered upon the island, and took Bastia, with 8 or 900 prisoners, most of whom were of Dillon's regiment, consisting principally of emigrants, whom the English governor was unable to bring away in time. The English, how-

ever, were in some measure compensated for this disaster by their success in repelling an attack upon the Cape of Good Hope by the Dutch. It must be within the recollection of most of our readers, that in the spring of this year a fleet sailed from Holland, and eluded the vigilance of the English cruisers; a part of that fleet arrived, in the month of August, near Saldanah bay, with a design of re-taking the Cape. Upon receiving intelligence of the enemy being on the coast, the commander of the English forces, major-general Craig, made preparations for repelling them. At that time vice-admiral sir George Elphinstone was stationed in those seas with a superior naval force; and, upon hearing of the arrival of the Dutch, he set sail, and soon arrived in Saldanah bay, and fortunately blocked up the Batavian fleet, the admiral of which was almost instantaneously obliged to surrender, with the ships under his command, consisting of three ships of the line, and five inferior vessels, having on board, in seamen and troops, 1972 men.

By the account which the Dutch admiral, Lucas, afterwards transmitted to the Batavian convention, of this disaster, many of the men on board were much inclined in favour of the Orange party, and were nearly in a state of mutiny.

The British navy, since our last Appendix, has not been engaged in any affair of magnitude: but particular ships and squadrons have picked up several frigates and other ships belonging to the French. We have, on the contrary, had the misfortune of losing some men of war by disasters at sea, viz. the old ship *Courageux*, and the *Bombay Castle*: many of the crew of the former were lost; but most of the men on board the *Bombay Castle* were saved.

Notwithstanding the respectable state of the naval force of Great Britain, "while that of the French republic remained shut up in their ports," admiral Richery, with a French squadron under his command, found means to elude the vigilance of our numerous fleets, and to pass unnoticed to Newfoundland, where he captured several vessels, and did great damage to the property of the inhabitants in the Bay of Bulls, and afterwards returned to Brest in safety.

I R E L A N D.

The lord lieutenant of Ireland opened the session of parliament on the 13th of October, with a speech in terms exactly corresponding to that made by his majesty to the English parliament.

The address was moved by Mr. Wolfe, to which Mr. Grattan, in an elegant speech, proposed an amendment,
the

the purport of which was to effect the complete concession of the constitutional privileges to the Roman Catholics: but this amendment was strongly opposed by the ministerial side of the house; and the original address was carried by 149 against 12.

The attorney-general a few days afterwards brought in a bill relative to persons charged with high treason, and for suspending the *habeas corpus* act in Ireland, which was most ably opposed by Mr. Grattan; but, notwithstanding the efforts of that gentleman and his friends, the bill in question was hurried through the house in a single night, and passed.

About the end of the year, this kingdom was thrown into a state of alarm. A considerable armament had been preparing for some time at Brest; and on the 26th of December about seven sail of French ships, some of them ships of the line, made their appearance in Bantry Bay. They did not however attempt a landing, prevented, as is supposed, by the tempestuous weather. By accident, a lieutenant and a few other men were driven on shore in a boat, and made prisoners. The lieutenant was brought to Dublin for examination, and from thence to London for the same purpose. By what could be collected from this gentleman, and from other sources, it appeared that the Brest armament had been really intended for the invasion of Ireland; that the fleet consisted of 17 sail of the line, with upwards of 30 frigates and transports, in three divisions, commanded by admiral De Galles; and that they had troops on board to the number of, from 20,000 to 25,000 men, under the command of general Hoche. A more rash and ill-concerted enterprise was perhaps never attempted. Had they effected a landing, they would have found not fewer than 200,000 men in arms to oppose them, in a country of which they were necessarily ignorant. In this state they must have immediately surrendered prisoners of war, while their ships must have inevitably been blocked up and captured by a superior fleet. This catastrophe was, however, prevented by the inclemency of the elements; and, before the end of December, even the few ships that appeared in the bay were forced out to sea by the violence of the storm. A few days afterwards intelligence arrived from Ireland, that several large French ships were seen off the Shannon, but soon disappeared.

Captain Lumsdaine, of his majesty's ship Polyphemus, captured, and brought into the Cove of Cork, the French frigate *La Fortune*, of 44 guns. The rest of the French fleet,

fleet, except two 74 gun ships which ran on shore near Brest, have since returned in safety to the ports of Brest and Rochelle.

R U S S I A.

An event has lately happened to the Russian empire, which may probably be productive of considerable political changes in its extensive territories, if not in the general system of Europe. Her imperial majesty Catharine II. died on the evening of the 17th of November, and the grand duke Paul Petrowitsch immediately succeeded to the throne.

Of the late empress the best panegyric would be silence; but as we stand in the situation of periodical historians, our readers will perhaps not be perfectly satisfied without a short character of one who has acted so distinguished a part on the political theatre. No man has ever denied that she was possessed of talents: yet it will perhaps be found, that, like those of the German women in general, hers partook more of the principle of cunning than of wisdom; or at least it must be allowed that she sacrificed to her ambition and vanity the real interests of the state. It was not an accession of territory that Russia wanted; it was population, industry, and the arts of civilised life, all of which it is the direct consequence of the military system to retard. Considered as an individual, there was scarcely any human vice from which this female monster was exempt. She commenced her reign by an act which would have condemned any person in a less eminent station to the most ignominious death; and yet whoever contemplates the detestable robbery committed on a neighbouring state, whose only crime was its inability to resist oppression,—and whoever recollects the horrid massacres of Ismail and Warsaw, and the mingled hypocrisy and blasphemy of consecrating these actions in a religious service,—will be disposed to regard her first transgression as the least of her crimes.

Various conjectures have been entertained respecting the line of political conduct which the new emperor is likely to pursue. On such a topic, as on most others, a single fact is perhaps worth a volume of disquisition—He has released from prison the gallant Kosciuszko, and has restored to their country the banished patriots of Poland. The man who commences his career with so noble and so liberal an act, cannot be in heart and inclination a despot.

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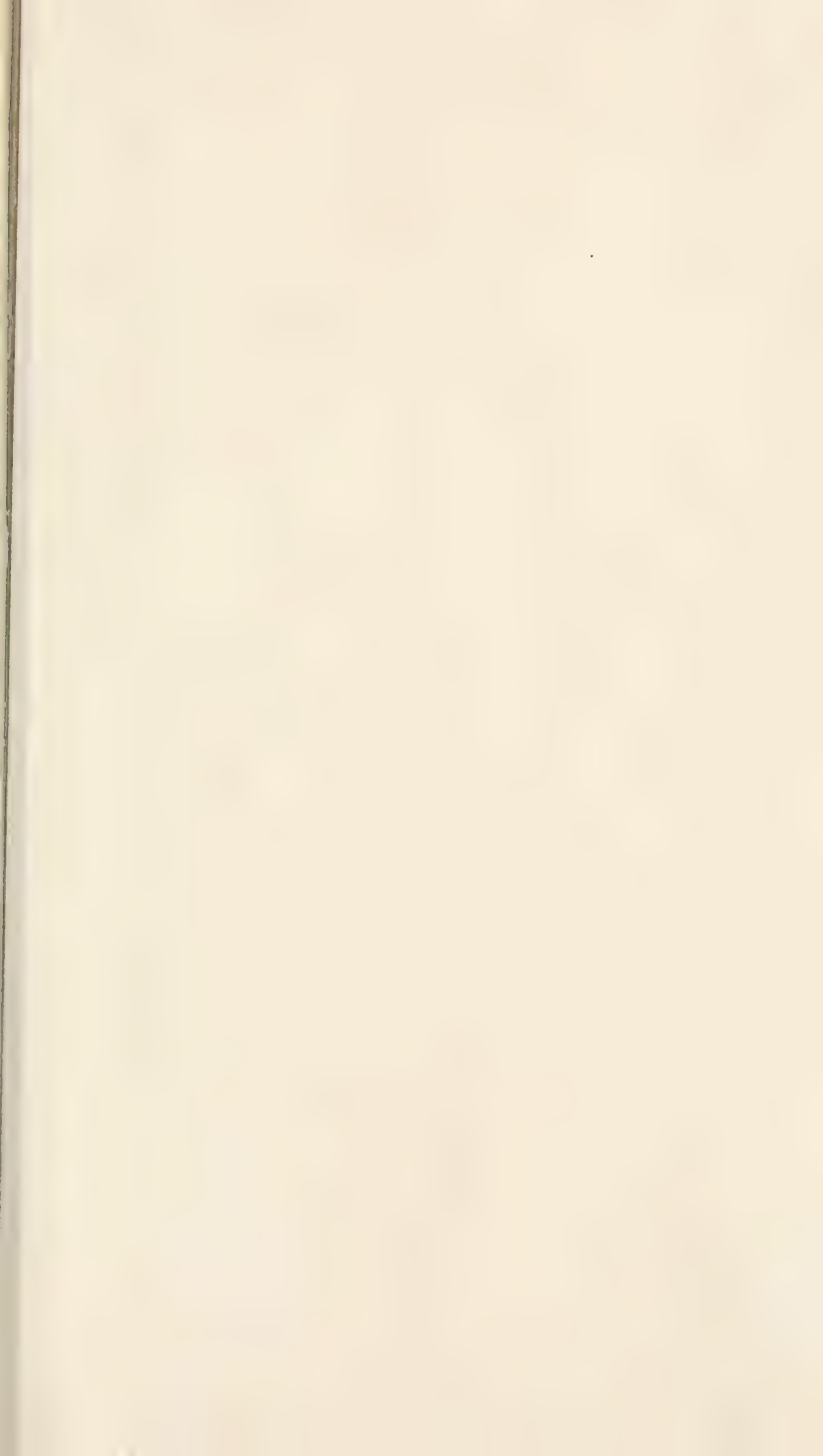
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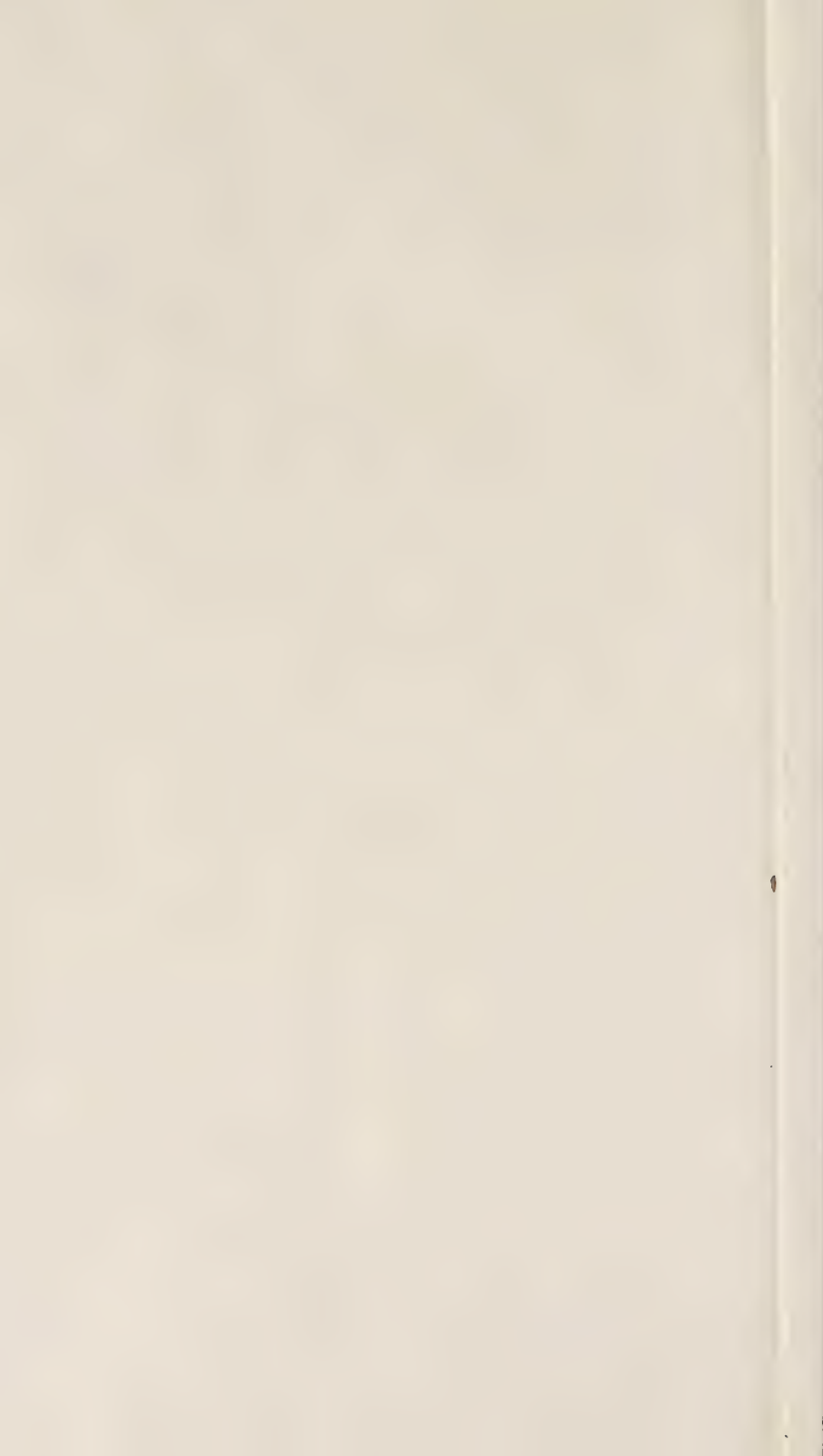
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